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ADULT IMMIGRANT EDUCATION

Its Scope, Content, and Methods

BY

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PREFACE

THE pedagogy of adult immigrant education has undergone a tremendous metamorphosis during the past decade. Prior to that time, the problem had not been specifically defined ; the objectives had not been definitely formulated ; the subject matter and methods by which these objectives could be attained had not been clearly outlined ; and distinct pedagogic principles had not been deemed necessary. For years the work, in some measure at least, lay in the hands of the non-professional, whose principal interest was the nightly pay. The prevalent idea seemed to be that any individual who possessed a fair knowledge of English and the vernacular of the students could successfully teach adult immigrant classes. At best, the "stock-in-trade" possessed by the early teacher was a knowledge that there was a problem to be solved and a belief that it would not be difficult of solution.

Gradually, however, definite criteria and objectives have been formulated. These have been developed after a close study of the problem and are not born of a passing enthusiasm. Methods for attaining these objectives are based on sound psychologic and pedagogic principles. The teacher is gradually beginning to weigh the educational values to be derived from each lesson presented. Dependent upon the subject matter

and the type of class, he determines whether the value of a particular lesson should be utilitarian, individual, social, ethical, or conventional.

The most recent development has been along the line of teacher training. The notion no longer holds that anyone who possesses the ability to speak English can teach it sufficiently well to meet and satisfy the needs of an adult immigrant class. It is becoming more and more evident that there is a pedagogy peculiar to the field, and that prospective teachers can profit by a training course.

While the literature of the subject has steadily increased, it is largely isolated and fragmentary. Numerous requests have come to the authors for reference to a practical volume in which the important phases of the work are discussed. Teachers are constantly asking, "What are we to teach, and how are we to teach?" It is the hope of the authors that this book will serve to answer both questions.

Throughout this text the term "Americanization" is used in its broadest sense — the complete assimilation of the foreigner through all possible agencies. When reference is made to the functions and activities of the school in the direction of the assimilation of the alien, the term "adult immigrant education" is employed.

The text is designed specifically for two purposes; first, definitely to prepare new teachers for the work; second, to further the training of teachers in service.

Acknowledgments are due to the many sources from which portions of the material have been gathered.

Individuals have been cited wherever possible. The grateful thanks of the writers are due the following :

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTIONS are often as perfunctory as books are matter of course and unoriginal. But in common with education in general, Americanization work has been steadily advancing in scope and efficiency, and writing an introduction to Mr. Sharlip and Mr. Owens' "Adult Immigrant Education" becomes a thing of moment, because it blazes new trails for this advance to follow.

Advancement in the scope of general education has taken the form of a continually widening socialization, and in efficiency, that of an instruction which aims at nothing short of conduct control.

To a broadening Americanization, which is in itself a phase of socialization, the great inclusiveness of the book under discussion is an important contribution. To the usual attempt at bringing about superficial familiarity with democratic forms embodied in the Constitution and our civil government, it adds many incidental means to the democratic control of individual and group conduct. Americanization is democratization only when the process of gaining familiarity with the English language and our governmental forms carries with it attitudes, standards, and habits which will result in saving faith in the annulment of all individual rights and personal liberties which conflict with the common welfare; assurance in all that have

not been proved to so conflict; a majority rule exercised for the common welfare; equality that is a leveling up through a realization of rights and opportunities largely self-achieved and which involves equivalent return and compensating service; responsibility for all democracies both as rights and as duties; coöperation with others for the common good both through leadership and in following leadership; and the elements in character which will make us strong enough to be democratic.

But the most forward step taken by Mr. Sharlip and Mr. Owens' book is the step toward an efficiency of instruction which seeks conduct control. Incidentally, the selection of objectives makes clear the fact that knowledge and experience are given those undergoing Americanization only to suggest outcomes within each individual which control individual and group conduct as common realizations, attitudes, motives and standards, vocabulary that is determining of the number, kind and interconnection of experiences recalled, associations, habits, and applications in the face of obstacles or difficulties.

In Chapter XII an interesting experiment is reported which was carried on by the authors in connection with one of my seminars, with a view to determining the effects of a broader vocabulary of words related to good citizenship upon the recall and interconnection of the sort of knowledge usually demanded of those seeking naturalization. Its success and that of many similar experiments clearly indicates the fact that if we would have American citizens recall, think about, and feel

more good citizenship than bad, and more of democracy than undemocracy, they must under competent instruction be made more familiar with the vocabulary of good citizenship and democracy than with the language of petty politics, Karl Marx, and undemocratic communism and socialism.

I predict for this book not only extensive and successful use but that it will be a forerunner of many others representing an Americanization which seeks, as its outcome, democracy through intelligent and useful self-control.

A. DUNCAN YOCUM

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ADULT IMMIGRANT EDUCATION

ADULT IMMIGRANT EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE AMERICANIZATION PROBLEM

The awakening of interest in Americanization. The past ten years have witnessed a remarkable growth of interest in the problem of Americanization. Stimulated by the World War, the most rapid development has occurred in the latter half of the decade. The findings of the Division of Psychology of the United States Army are familiar to the majority of educators but not to the public at large. The report of the Division, in discussing illiteracy, stated that of the men tested "25.3 per cent were unable to 'read and understand newspapers and write letters home' and were given the Beta examination for illiterates. An additional 5.7 per cent, after failing the Alpha examination for literates, were also given the Beta examination."¹ Prior to the general awakening of interest many private and quasi-public institutions had been doing quiet but effective work in the field. The stimulus of the war, with its constant cry for "one hundred per cent

¹"Psychological Examining in the United States Army," *Memoirs of the National Academy of Sciences*, Vol. XV; Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1921.

Americans " focused the attention of the entire nation on the situation created by the presence of a great foreign element in our midst. The general public, suddenly realizing that such a thing as Americanization existed, attributed it to the war, instead of realizing that the problem had existed but lain neglected for years.

The Federal Government, states, cities, and small communities instituted measures to make "one hundred per cent Americans" out of the foreign population in as short a space of time as possible. Schools were established and great enthusiasm was shown by those engaged in the work. With the close of the war, interest lessened and many of the former enthusiasts turned their energies to other lines of work.

The magnitude of the problem. The importance of the problem is not to be measured by the degree to which it holds the center of the stage. Greater progress and much more effective work has been accomplished during the past five years than during any preceding period. Only those actively engaged in the work have a clear realization of the immensity of the problem. They do not delude themselves with the belief that it can be solved overnight. They are fully aware that the task requires considerable time, patience, and un-failing energy, if a successful solution is to be obtained. There is no royal road to success. Like any other true reform, progress is slow and necessitates the education of the public to the conditions existing, together with the formulation of a set of definite principles for guidance.

The census reports for 1920 show a total foreign-born

population of 13,920,692, of which 6,493,088 have been naturalized. These figures include all races, the Negro, Indian, Mongolian, as well as the Caucasian. The statistics for the foreign-born white population serve to show more accurately the conditions now existing. According to the same census returns, there were 13,712,754 foreign-born white people in the country, of whom 6,479,159, or 47.2 per cent, have secured citizenship papers. The difference represents, in brief, the magnitude of the problem. The 52.8 per cent includes those who have taken out first papers and those whose citizenship status was not reported, in addition to the aliens. It may be claimed that the above figures include many foreign-born who are young enough to be reached by the elementary schools. If, then, we take the number over 21 years of age, or 12,498,720, of whom 6,208,697 are naturalized, we have decreased the absolute figures by about one million. The Americanization problem, as met in the evening schools, the mothers' classes, and the factory classes, is not confined to those over 21 years of age but includes many between 16 and 21. The actual number must lie, then, somewhere between the figures given for the total foreign-born population not yet naturalized and those for the aliens over 21 years of age. Included in the number that may be served by an Americanization program are many who have obtained their citizenship papers but still feel the need of further preparation for a better adjustment to the economic conditions in the community, and also hundreds of thousands who have arrived since the taking of the census.

The history of immigration. A broad perspective of the problem of immigration can be secured if we trace, briefly, the various periods as reflected in the numbers and types of immigrants arriving in this country. The records of immigration date from 1820; so we may, for convenience, divide the period prior to that date into two parts: (1) down to 1783 as the period of colonization, and (2) from 1783 to 1820 as the period largely characterized by an internal growth in population. While there were, undoubtedly, some immigrants who came to America during the latter period, their numbers were, without question, small. It may be assumed, further, that they were largely of the same blood as the colonizers. Immigration from 1820 to the present may be divided into: (1) the period of "old" immigration, down to about 1882; and (2) the period of "new" immigration, from 1882 to the present time. The old immigration included the people chiefly from the Teutonic and Celtic countries: England, Ireland, Belgium, Scotland, Wales, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and Holland. These people were largely of the same blood as the earlier settlers and formed 95 per cent of the European immigrants prior to 1882.¹ The new immigration started during the decade between 1880 and 1890 and is comprised largely of the people from eastern and southern Europe: Russia, Roumania, Turkey, Poland, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Servia, and Spain.

¹ JOHN R. COMMONS — *Races and Immigrants in America*; The Macmillan Company, 1907.

The following table illustrates the increase in the number of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe and the decrease in numbers from the Teutonic and Celtic countries :

¹ IMMIGRANTS FROM SPECIFIED COUNTRIES, BY DECADES

1840-1920

DECADE	IRELAND	GERMANY	ITALY	RUSSIA
1840-1850	780,719	434,626	1,870	306
1850-1860	914,119	951,667	9,231	1,621
1860-1870	435,778	787,468	11,728	4,536
1870-1880	436,871	718,182	55,759	52,254
1880-1890	655,482	1,452,970	307,309	265,088
1890-1900	403,496	543,922	655,694	593,703
1900-1910	339,065	341,498	2,045,877	1,597,306
1910-1920	145,937	143,945	1,109,524	921,957

For years the Irish and Germans ranked highest among the foreign-born in the United States. The Italians and the Russians have shown greatest increase in numbers in the last decade. During the last forty years the number of Italians has multiplied thirty-six times and the Russians thirty-five times.²

Another point that must be considered in reviewing the changes that have occurred in immigration is the citizenship status of the two types of immigrants. The degree to which they become naturalized may serve as one measure of the extent to which they are absorbed into the body politic. Reference to the

¹ WILLIAM S. ROSSITER — *Increase of Population in the United States, 1910-1920*. (Census Monograph 1) Washington, D. C.

² *Op. cit.*, pp. 115-116.

Bureau of Census reports on the citizenship of the foreign-born shows the following percentages for the five countries which contributed the largest number of immigrants :

COUNTRY	PER CENT NATURALIZED
Germany	73.6
Ireland	66.1
Russia	42.1
Italy	29.8
Poland	28.9

It will be noted that the immigrants from the Teutonic and Celtic countries show a greater tendency to become citizens than the immigrants from eastern and southern Europe.

Characteristics of the new immigrants. As long as the newcomers to America were of the Teutonic or Anglo-Saxon stock, the problem of educating the alien seemed to present, outwardly at least, no particular difficulties. Many brought with them a knowledge of the English language ; they quickly and easily adopted our manners and customs and were readily absorbed into the social, economic, and political life of the communities in which they lived. With the advent of the southern and eastern Europeans, a new situation was created. The majority of these immigrants were from countries affording little opportunity for public education. Further, their culture, language, traditions, and habits of thought and action were at variance with

those of the older foreign-born stock and the native American. Even a casual investigation will disclose the fact that the educational, cultural, political, and economic backgrounds of the majority of the southern Europeans were vastly different from our own. Nor was that all. They did not as readily adjust themselves to new conditions nor show the same facility in acquiring our language, customs, and ideals. Rather did they tend to segregate in urban centers, to settle among groups of their own nationality and transplant their old-world customs. Were their numbers smaller, or were they scattered, the community would have made greater progress in absorbing them.

While many of the foreign-born parents continue to live as strangers in a strange land, their children, through their school training, speedily forget the old world in the environment of the new. They learn a new language and different manners and customs which, when carried to their homes, create a barrier between the parents and the children. The parents do not understand the children, nor do the children appreciate the attitude of the parents. There is grave danger in educating the children away from their parents. When children must act as interpreters because parents lack a knowledge of English, lying, deceit, loss of parental authority, and juvenile delinquency often result. Such conditions have made it necessary for the national, state, and municipal authorities to take serious consideration of the problem and provide educational facilities to prevent the disruption of family life among the foreign-born.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select the racial group with which you are most familiar. Investigate along the following lines :
 - a.* The number in the United States
 - b.* When they came
 - c.* Their distribution in the country
 - d.* Why they migrated
 - e.* Their traditions
 - f.* Their customs and ideals
 - g.* Their religion
 - h.* Their previous education
 - i.* Their tendency to secure an education in the United States
 - j.* The influences that determine their occupations in this country as compared to their occupations in Europe
 - k.* Their method of spending their leisure in Europe and in the United States
 - l.* Their ambitions for themselves and their families
 - m.* How these ambitions are affected by their experiences in this country
 - n.* How the institutions of America affect their ambitions
 - o.* Their opinions of America
 - p.* Their attitude toward freedom of speech, liberty, democracy, and the political institutions of this country
 - q.* The contributions they offer to America along cultural lines
2. Compare the old with the new immigration, touching on source, literacy, and the social problems involved.
3. Review some book on the subject of the immigrant.

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CHAPTER II

DEFINITIONS AND OBJECTIVES

I. DEFINITIONS

Diversity of opinion. There is little agreement concerning the scope and purpose of Americanization. The following definitions show this diversity of opinion although some elements will be found that are common to all. As one would naturally expect, the individual interpretation of the writer is present in each definition.

Thompson wrote, "Let us assume that we mean by Americanization those best American ideals and standards which the best Americans have created, which we would have adopted by all Americans, whether native or foreign-born." Further on he stated, "Americanization is nothing but democratization of men who feel alike but do not understand one another."¹

Roberts stated that "The work of Americanization is the molding and shaping of the ideas of foreign-born men as to what America stands for, the training of the foreign-born in the *modus operandi* of democratic institutions as found in the United States, the informing of these men as to the history of the country and the founders of the republic."²

Jenks says, "For the immigrants Americanization

¹ FRANK V. THOMPSON — *Schooling of the Immigrant* ; Harper & Brothers, 1920.

² PETER ROBERTS — *The Problem of Americanization* ; The Macmillan Co., 1920.

means an intellectual understanding of our national ideal standards and a definite desire to approximate, as nearly as may be, their realization by means of legal practices and authorized institutions.”¹

Crist has defined Americanization as “the establishment of a closer relationship between the alien population of the United States and the government through the public schools of the country.” He further states that “the term Americanization has been used and misused. The Americanism of a native American may be at low ebb, but he cannot be Americanized. He may be inspired to higher ideals, but to view him as a candidate for Americanization means to make ‘Americanization’ meaningless. It remains, therefore, for the term to be applied to people not American.”²

Goldberger has written, “Americanization has been defined as the union of new with native-born Americans in fuller common understanding and appreciation to secure by means of individual and collective self-direction the highest welfare of all.”³

The experience of the Commission of Immigration and Housing of California led to the conclusion that “Americanization was not flag raising and ‘patriotic’ howling; that it was not suppression of speech and honest opinion; that it was more than teaching English to foreigners. Americanization, it found, is the encouragement to decent living and making possible the attainment of decent standards. It involves the

¹ ALBERT A. JENKS — National Research Council, Washington, D. C.

² RAYMOND F. CRIST — *Fourth Annual Report*, Bureau of Naturalization, 1920.

³ HENRY H. GOLDBERGER — *Second Book in English for Coming Citizens*; Charles Scribner's Sons, 1921.

development of national ideals and standards and the schooling of all residents, foreign-born as well as native-born, in those ideals and standards.”¹

The Bulletin of the Department of Education of Massachusetts may be quoted as follows: “The term ‘Americanization’ is very elastic and has been stretched, seemingly, to cover all sorts of movements and activities. In its widest significance it means making good American citizens of both native- and foreign-born.”²

Burns has offered the following definition: “To sum up Americanization in one word, it is self-determination.”³

Grolle has said, “We should be convinced that Americanization is divided into three major parts: the American, the Foreign, and the Individual.

“To begin with the first, we should consider the American part as comprising American ideals, American environment, and American citizenship. The Foreign represents Old Country experience, the traditions and conditions of the Home Country, training or lack of training, and reasons for coming to America. The third part represents the individual and collective reaction of the individual or group who, as Americans, judge the old and the new and, as Foreigners, judge the new by the old.”⁴

¹ *Ninth Annual Report*, 1923.

² *The Massachusetts Problem of Immigrant Education*, 1921-1922.

³ ALLEN TIBBALS BURNS — *American Americanization*; “Public Service Addresses,” Series 1919-1920, No. 4, Educational Department of the Municipal Court, Philadelphia, Pa.

⁴ From a speech by John Grolle of the Association of Philadelphia Settlements, given as part of the discussion following the address by Allen Tibbals Burns, *American Americanization*, and published in the same volume.

Roosevelt's conception of Americanization contains the following elements: (1) a common language, (2) an undivided loyalty, "a citizenship which acknowledges no flag except the flag of the United States and which emphatically repudiates all duality of intention or national loyalty," (3) securing for every man his rights and to "make every man understand that unless he in good faith performs his duties he is not entitled to any rights at all." ¹

Bogardus wrote, "Americanization is the educational process of unifying both native-born and foreign-born Americans in perfect support of the principles of liberty, union, democracy, and brotherhood." ²

Cubberley has taken the view that "our task is to break up their groups or settlements, to assimilate and amalgamate these people as a part of our American race, to implant in their children, so far as can be done, the Anglo-Saxon conception of righteousness, law and order, and popular government, and to awaken in them reverence for our democratic institutions and for those things in our national life which we as a people hold to be of abiding worth." ³

It is to be noted in the above definitions that there is no unanimity of opinion as to whether or not the native-born should be embraced within the term *Americanization*. The tendency seems to be toward the inclusion of the native-born as well as the foreigner,

¹ THEODORE ROOSEVELT — *Knights of Columbus Speech*, 1915.

² EMORY S. BOGARDUS — *Essentials of Americanization*; University of Southern California Press, 1919.

³ E. P. CUBBERLEY — *Changing Conceptions of Education*; Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909.

to indicate the need of exerting an influence upon the American that will make him a worthy example for his foreign-born neighbor. It is worthy of note that one of the outstanding opponents of such an inclusion is the Director of Citizenship of the Bureau of Naturalization. It is also interesting to recognize the implication, even insistence, on the part of some that the foreigner be forced to throw over at once his own culture, language, customs, and ideals in a strict adherence to American life in all its phases.

As was suggested, each of the definitions is colored by the particular angle from which the problem is viewed. The Director of Citizenship quite naturally surveys the problem with the ultimate citizenship of the foreigner as the definite goal to be attained. Consequently, the term does not apply to those who are citizens, regardless of their lack of the qualities which we generally consider as being essential to true citizenship. On the other hand, if we view the problem in its broadest aspects and with all its ramifications, it becomes apparent that the native may well be included. If we, in educating the foreigner to assume the duties and obligations of citizenship, set up standards and ideals that we consider essential but which are not generally observed by the native Americans, we hardly can expect the foreigners to become other than skeptical as to the truth and efficacy of our teaching. Success cannot be achieved nor a desirable solution of the problem found, if a double set of standards exists. There must be a common set of objectives in civic training for the native-born and in Americanization

for the foreign-born, even though their attainment is to be accomplished through different agencies. It is obviously impossible to include within the usual Americanization program any training for the native-born. Such work should be accomplished by the day schools and other agencies.

A definition of Americanization. An analysis of the foregoing definitions, and a consideration of the essential features of each from the point of view of the problem of education, serves to point out that *Americanization, in its broadest application, must include the native- as well as the foreign-born, must embrace the inculcation of American ideals and standards into the life of the newcomer, and must imply a willingness on the part of the native to accept the contributions of the foreigner, economic, political, social, cultural, and educational, that may promote the welfare of America.*

II. OBJECTIVES

The aims of adult immigrant education. Keeping the definition of Americanization in mind, the following list has been evolved as representing some of the definite objectives to be sought :

1. To eliminate illiteracy.
2. To teach the English language.
3. To teach the laws of health, sanitation, and disease prevention.
4. To present clearly the ideals and standards of America.
5. To encourage and prepare the immigrant to take his

place in the civic and political life of the community, state, and nation.

6. To break down racial prejudices by encouraging association with English-speaking people.

7. To bridge the gap between immigrant parents and their American-born children.

8. To point out the need for the foreigner's contribution to American culture and ideals.

9. To invite participation by the foreign-born in the social, economic, and cultural aspects of American life.

10. To remove everything that tends to destroy our standards of civilization.

Realizations essential to the attainment of the objectives. The attainment of the objectives as set forth is dependent largely upon the teacher's knowledge of the problem as a whole and his attitude towards it. There are a number of realizations that are essential to a successful solution of the problem and should be clearly established in the teacher's mind, namely :

1. The diversity and range of students' mental equipment.
2. The necessity for presenting the materials with the most immediate application, based on

a. The urgent necessity of earning a livelihood at once,

b. The immediate necessity of conversing in English with English-speaking people,

c. The need of rapid adjustment to the American environment.

3. The language of instruction determined by the students' knowledge of English.

4. The methods of presentation, based on sound psychological and pedagogical principles and sufficiently diversified to hold the interests of the students.

5. The necessity of the teacher knowing the educational, social, political, and religious backgrounds of the foreigner.
6. The existence of racial and religious animosities as factors in class grouping and organization.
7. The importance of the teacher's personal and human interest.
8. The physical limitations of students (fatigue) as a factor in controlling interest.
9. The multiplicity of factors that control and influence attendance.
10. The scope and purpose of the problem of Americanization.

Subjects determined by the objectives. Having determined the objectives of adult immigrant education and the mental set of the teacher, the next step concerns itself with a formulation of courses of study and their contents. The test of the inclusion of a subject must be the extent to which the objectives of the problem will be attained. Experience has proved the effectiveness of the following courses :

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------|
| 1. English | 4. History |
| 2. Hygiene | 5. Civics and citizenship |
| 3. Geography | 6. Arithmetic |

Determination of the content of the courses. The type of material that should be included in each course depends upon the particular class or group of classes to be taught. A consideration of the essential realizations is necessary at this point. The content of the courses will depend, in part, upon the knowledge of English possessed by the students, their intellectual background, their previous schooling in America (if

any), their status regarding citizenship, and the length of time they may be expected to attend.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Assume that the Board of Education in your city is adverse to offering an Americanization course in the schools. Draw up a brief for presentation to the school authorities showing the value of the course and its effect upon the community.

2. Frame a definition of Americanization. Defend your viewpoint.

3. Name five important objectives of Americanization work and discuss the realizations essential to the attainment of each.

4. In what ways have the foreign-born contributed to American culture?

5. How may the foreigners' experiences be utilized in the classroom?

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CHAPTER III

AIDS TO ORGANIZATION AND ATTENDANCE

I. ORGANIZATION

Homogeneity the keynote. Much of the success or failure of the work in adult immigrant education depends upon the type of class organization. Various criteria may be used as bases for such organization, depending upon which objective or objectives are to be emphasized. Regardless of the criteria to be used, the teacher should bear in mind that the keynote of organization is homogeneity. Other things being equal, the more homogeneous the class the greater will be its progress. Regular attendance and uniform progress are dependent, in part, upon the method of grouping and will be enhanced if the grouping follows some definitely established and well-proved criteria.

Knowledge of English as a criterion. A very satisfactory classification, and the one most commonly used, is based upon the student's knowledge of English. The students are divided into three groups dependent upon their ability to speak, read, and write the English language.

A. Beginning grade

1. Those who speak little or no English
2. Those who read no English
3. Those who write no English

B. Intermediate grade

1. Those who have a fair command of oral expression
2. Those who can read simple English sentences with understanding
3. Those who can write easy sentences

C. Advanced grade

1. Those who can speak good English
2. Those who can read the daily newspaper with comprehension
3. Those who can write a simple account of an incident or a personal experience

The limitations to this type of classification will be determined, in a large measure, by the number of students enrolled. Several groups may be placed in a single classroom where numbers necessitate such an arrangement. Under such conditions, instead of teaching the groups separately in all subjects, it may be advisable:

1. To rearrange the groups as the subject is changed. A student may belong to the intermediate group as far as his command of English is concerned and at the same time fit in well with the advanced group in citizenship.

2. To arrange the subject matter in small units for intensive individual instruction.

Other criteria. There are several factors that have been considered in organizing classes for foreigners; namely, age, occupation, previous education, nationality, sex, and political status. All of these have their limitations. The relative merits and shortcomings of each will be briefly discussed. The number of students

in attendance will serve as the determining factor in all efforts toward classification.

Age. The theory behind classification according to age holds that young students of 17 or 18 are more capable of grasping a new language than are older students of 35 or 40 years of age. Such a difference in ability naturally results in heterogeneity in the classroom, after even a short period of instruction. Experience has proved the soundness of this theory. The difficulty arises in securing sufficient numbers of a group age to permit a classification upon this basis. Another difficulty is to be found in determining the division line for age groups. Unless there happens to be a natural line of cleavage in the ages of the students, it will be hard to say how the groupings should be made. If the numbers are sufficiently large, the following age groups may be used as a tentative basis for classification: those under 21, those from 21 to 30, 31 to 40, and so on. There will always be a greater similarity of interests among students of approximately the same age than among students whose ages range from 16 to 60.

Occupation. Groups formed according to occupational pursuits simplify the teaching problem in so far as it relates to vocabulary building in the earlier portion of the course. The students of a given occupation need a vocabulary based upon the type of work in which they are engaged. Such classification is hardly possible in the typical adult immigrant class unless established in a community where the students are engaged in a single industry. The establishment of factory classes

makes possible such a grouping. There are definite limitations to this type of classification, whether in typical evening schools or in factory classes. The social values of a language should be borne in mind by the teacher. The students will have occasion to make definite and immediate application of social English. The language of the shop, with its specialized vocabulary, can hardly be carried over effectively into ordinary social conversation. Hence, it will be necessary for the instruction in factory classes and other groups classified according to occupations to include vocabulary work other than that applying to the particular industry. There is also present the additional pedagogic difficulty of securing teachers who have sufficient knowledge of the technical processes and vocabulary of the occupation to make the work effective.

Educational background. The educational and cultural background of a student will determine to a great degree the rapidity with which he will progress in the classroom. The most casual survey of the educational equipment of the students will show a variation in training ranging from the completion of college and technical school courses to no educational preparation whatever. The literate foreigner will recognize word forms and will need to learn only proper pronunciations and meanings, associations between new symbols and old ideas, objects, and experiences. The illiterate student is a long step behind his more fortunate countryman. His progress will be correspondingly slow.

Nationality. Classification on the basis of nation-

ality, if resorted to, should be continued no longer than absolutely necessary, as it tends to perpetuate factional animosities, the antithesis of the purpose of Americanization. Such grouping serves to strengthen a condition that Americanization attempts to break down, the tendency of the foreign-born to herd together. Among people of his own kind the individual who knows no English is prone to rely upon his compatriot who is more familiar with the language of America. If several nationalities are grouped together, each facing similar problems, they are forced to use English as a common vehicle of expression. Each class thus represents a miniature melting-pot, the resultant product being an amalgamation of varying groups into one unified whole. It will not be necessary for the student to rely upon someone else for an understanding of the English used in the classroom; independence of effort will be fostered; and group isolation will be overcome.

Sex. Two very distinct points of view are maintained concerning classification on the basis of sex:

1. Men and women should be placed in separate groups wherever possible because of their different interests. The content of the courses of study should be diversified to meet the particular needs of each.

2. Each class is a small cross-section of social life and necessitates a mixture of the sexes. When segregation is resorted to it is impossible to adequately present and dramatize situations illustrating courtesy, politeness, and other amenities of social intercourse. The inculcation of American respect for women and the

teaching of the common courtesies between the sexes can best be accomplished in a mixed class.

Political status. A more restricted grouping has for its basis the political status of the students. There are three groups possible under this classification :

1. Those who have not filed a Declaration of Intention.
2. Those who have filed a Declaration of Intention.
3. Those who have filed Petitions for Naturalization and are awaiting their court hearing.

Instruction in citizenship should not be introduced until the students have sufficient command of the English language to enable them to grasp with reasonable ease the instruction in the subject. Classification on the basis of political status will be most efficacious with students who belong in the third group. A short period of ninety days exists in which such students may prepare for their court examination for naturalization. A definite course of preparation will enable the petitioners to enter the ordeal with greater confidence and considerable assurance of success.

Size of classes. The number of students in any class should not exceed twenty-five. Large classes necessitate a decreasing amount of individual instruction. Such personal contact creates in the students the feeling that they belong, that they are wanted, and that a personal interest is taken in their welfare. On the other hand, group instruction creates a feeling of comradeship and enhances social unity. A sane balance should be maintained at all times between the two types of instruction. Both are of value and over-emphasis on either should be avoided.

Vestibule classes. To prevent the constant drifting of new students into classes that have already been organized for some time, always to the discomfiture of teachers and students, special classes known as vestibule classes are recommended. The enrollment in these classes should be limited and the work of the teacher so arranged as to permit individual instruction. As soon as it is possible for a student to carry on the work being done in any regular class, his transfer should be effected.

II. ATTENDANCE

Factors influencing attendance. Much has been said and written concerning the failure of the evening school to reach and hold the immigrants with any considerable degree of success. This failure is due, in large measure, to conditions over which the school has little or no control. The factors that influence attendance may be grouped under two headings:

- A. Those under the control of the teacher or administrative officer
 - 1. Poor classification of students
 - 2. Shifting of students from class to class
 - 3. Poor teaching
 - 4. Insufficient training of teachers for Americanization work
 - 5. Little or no curricula for teachers
- B. Those beyond the control of the teacher
 - 1. The more frequently recurring causes
 - a. Overtime work
 - b. Night work
 - c. Illness of person or family

- d.* Fatigue
- e.* Deprivation of social life
- f.* Distance from school
- 2. Change of teachers
- 3. Attitude of native-born toward foreigners
- 4. Ability to get citizenship papers without attending school
- 5. Limited time in which to work with students
- 6. Moving of students to other sections of the city or country
- 7. Classes held in buildings equipped for children

Factors under the control of the teacher. *Poor classification of students.* Failure to place students in classes where they can profit most by instruction results in rapid discouragement with consequent failure to attend. One or more of the criteria for grouping previously suggested should be utilized and such classification completed as rapidly as possible.

Shifting from class to class. This is usually a concomitant of poor classification. It may also occur as a result of superior progress on the part of individuals. Transfers to more advanced classes should be made, provided they do not result in losing the students. Many students prefer to remain in classes where they do not fit rather than enter a class more suited to their needs, because a shift means working among strangers with a new teacher. It is usually advisable in such cases to permit the students to remain in their original classes.

Due to the common practice of admitting students at all times, it frequently becomes necessary, on account

of increased numbers, to divide classes. A method of procedure followed by an evening school principal in Philadelphia offers a very serviceable plan for avoiding any loss of attendance. The teacher who is to take over a portion of the class works with the regular classroom teacher until the students become accustomed to him. Then, when the division takes place, the break is scarcely noticeable, and the loss which usually accompanies such changes is avoided.

Poor teaching. The teacher who shows little enthusiasm for the work, who possesses no sympathy or understanding for the student and his problems, and who makes no effort to secure the specialized training needed, cannot be successful.

Insufficient training for adult immigrant education. Although many institutions have organized courses to prepare teachers for adult immigrant education, there has not been, as yet, sufficient time in which to adequately train even a majority of the teachers engaged in the work. Many of the older teachers in the service feel that their leisure is so short that they cannot afford to attend such classes. There is also the feeling among some that their experience is sufficiently valuable in itself to outweigh the merits of any of the numerous courses offered. Admitting the value of practical experience in the field, there are few teachers who would not profit considerably as a result of the interchange of ideas and methods that should be an integral part of any course in methods of teaching.

Absence of a definite curriculum. Little progress has been made in the establishment of definite or sug-

gestive curricula for the guidance of the teacher. The nature of the work has presented numerous difficulties in the successful formulation of such curricula. In spite of the obstacles to be overcome, much experimentation has been made in this direction during the past few years. The most satisfactory curricula, from the viewpoint of both students and teachers, should present the maximum amount of subject matter. With such curricula, the teacher has a wealth of material and is able to modify and adapt it to the needs of his students.

Factors beyond the control of the teacher. *The most frequently recurring difficulties.* The teacher can do very little to eliminate such factors as (a) overtime work, (b) night work, (c) illness of person or family, (d) fatigue, (e) deprivation of social life, and (f) distance from school. To be sure, he can make the classroom work interesting and profitable and thus furnish an incentive to those who have long distances to travel and attract even those who are greatly fatigued.

Attendance through curiosity. Quite frequently there are students on the class roll who have never been in attendance. Their contribution amounts to nothing more than an increase in the enrollment. Others appear for one or two nights, take little interest and no part in the work, and then disappear. It is hardly to be expected that they can be held in attendance. Their curiosity has been satisfied.

Change of teachers. This is an administrative problem. There cannot be continuity in the work, if teachers come and go. It is of great importance, there-

fore, that a teacher assume the responsibility of remaining with a class for an entire school term unless conditions make it absolutely impossible. In this connection, it cannot be urged too strongly that, at the very outset, the teacher should be made to understand that his regular attendance is of the utmost importance. A teacher who frequently misses his class loses it very quickly.

Attitude of native-born toward foreigners. There is need of a better understanding and a more tolerant attitude toward the foreign-born on the part of native Americans. They should treat the newcomers with the same respect that they would look for were the conditions reversed. After all, there is very little difference between the native- and the foreign-born. In many cases but a single generation separates them.

Ability to secure citizenship papers without attending school. Students see other foreigners get citizenship papers without the aid of the school, consequently they are unwilling to give their time and energy toward systematic preparation for citizenship.

Limited time in which to work with the students. A survey of the statistics of attendance in adult immigrant classes points out very conclusively that the vast majority of the enrollment is confined to beginning classes. There is also evidence that only a comparatively small percentage of those enrolled remain in attendance during the entire school year. Some of the causes of the failure of the schools to hold the students in attendance have been pointed out. Assuming that these causes can be removed and perfect

attendance secured for the entire school term, there is still too short a period of time in which to present all the materials of instruction that are recognized as being of value to the students. Recognizing all the factors, the exercise of good judgment would dictate that the greatest amount of work possible should be presented every evening, especially during the earlier weeks of the course. This applies with equal force to all classes.

Moving of students to other sections of the city or country. This heading is self-explanatory. There is considerable migration among the unskilled and semi-skilled laboring classes, which greatly retards the efforts of both students and teachers to complete a satisfactory course in Americanization.

Classes held in buildings equipped for children. The common practice of using desks designed for children of twelve to fourteen years of age undoubtedly has an unfavorable reaction upon attendance. It is asking too much to expect adults to sit night after night in desks much too small for them. Considering the conditions as they exist, there are two possibilities: first, the use of high school buildings and, second, the use of junior high school buildings. These also lend themselves very readily to the teaching of vocational subjects and offer excellent facilities for social activities.

Agencies that can aid in Americanization. The bulletin of the University of the State of New York called "Organization of Schools in English for the Foreign-Born" lists thirty-five agencies that "should be utilized

to the fullest extent in keeping the night schools before the eyes of the foreign-born, constantly." These are :

1. English newspapers
2. Foreign newspapers
3. Industrial publications
4. Shop or factory papers
5. Announcement slides at the moving picture houses
6. Special visits to the homes
7. Announcements handed to school children of foreign-born parents to be taken home
8. Hand bills and posters in English and in the prevailing foreign languages
9. Printed notices distributed through foreign employment agencies
10. Notices distributed through shops and stores, and inclosed with purchases
11. Foreign societies and lodges
12. Foreign banks, notices inclosed in pass books, etc.
13. Labor union meetings
14. Banks, foreign and American
15. Notices in pay envelopes
16. Post offices
17. Personal notification and solicitation, by foremen and bosses
18. Personal circular letters by officials of industries to employees
19. Announcements by priests and ministers
20. Recognition of attendance on bulletin boards
21. Notice by probation officers
22. Notice in church calendars, and notices left in pews
23. Noonday plant meetings, with an effective four-minute speaker
24. Notices inserted in library books

25. Lists of non-English-speaking parishioners gained from clergymen
26. Distribution of printed notices by boy scouts
27. Naturalization bureau
28. Physicians and community nurses
29. Local aid societies
30. Visits of kindergartners or school teachers to the home
31. Public mass meetings
32. Parent-teacher association meetings
33. Four-minute men
34. Mothers' meetings
35. With pay checks for mothers' pensions

These agencies serve as very useful advertising forces for the evening school. While the responsibility for the bulk of the Americanization work must rest on the shoulders of the school people, certain other agencies are peculiarly fitted as auxiliaries in the work of creating or fostering, at least, a proper civic attitude on the part of the foreigners. The following institutions should incorporate, along with the other work they are accomplishing, certain phases of Americanization work.

Churches :

1. To persuade its foreign members to attend evening school by pointing out to them the advantages and necessities of a participation in the common affairs of the community.
2. To teach through the pulpit the ideals and standards of American life.
3. To aid the foreigners in adjusting themselves as rapidly as possible to their new environment.
4. To aid in the elimination of racial and religious prejudices.

Labor unions and foreign organizations :

1. To aid the school authorities in the organization of English classes for their members.
2. To teach the proper use of the ballot.
3. To discuss the rights and duties of citizens.
4. To promote a better understanding of the mutual rights of employer and employed.

Industries :

1. To coöperate with the school authorities as to the establishment and maintenance of English and citizenship classes for their employees.
2. To exert the utmost effort toward a proper understanding by the workers as to mutual rights and privileges.
3. To give the foreigner, by means of a square deal and humane treatment, a proper respect for American industrial institutions.
4. To train the workers in the proper use of the ballot.

Settlement and community houses :

1. To coöperate with school authorities in the work of forming classes in English for the foreigners not reached by other agencies.
2. To teach sanitation, disease prevention, and the care of infants.
3. To inculcate proper ideals of the home.
4. To offer adequate means for wholesome recreation, thereby creating a sympathetic attitude and community understanding among the members of the various nationalities.

Courts :

1. To instill into immigrants a proper respect for law and order by giving the foreigner a square deal at all times.

2. To protect the foreigner against exploitation.
3. To coöperate with school authorities to the fullest extent relative to citizenship, and to accept the word of the school as sufficient evidence of the fitness of the foreigner for naturalization.

Health boards :

1. To promote the proper understanding of sanitation through health officers and publicity in foreign newspapers.
2. To furnish information as to laws of health, prevention of disease, the value of vaccination, quarantine, and the care of infants.
3. To acquaint the foreigner with laws concerning housing and sanitation so as to prevent exploitation by unscrupulous landlords.

Banks :

1. To give the foreigner information as to safe and sane methods of investment.
2. To give information as to thrift, methods of saving, and budget making.
3. To give such help as may prevent the exploitation of the foreigner in money matters.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select the racial group with which you are most familiar. What are the outside forces helping to accelerate or retard its Americanization? What institutions are helping to create a proper civic attitude?
2. Assume the existence of the following conditions: six hundred students in a school in which the attendance shows an equal number of Italians, Slavs, and Russian Jews, all of the beginners' grade; one tenth of the students have a high educational background, one tenth a low edu-

cational background ; sexes are equally divided ; the ages of one hundred students range from 16 to 21, those of three hundred students from 21 to 30, those of one hundred from 31 to 40, and those of the remainder above 40 ; thirty students per class. Problem : Organize the school.

3. How can the following agencies aid in the work of Americanization : school, church, labor unions, settlement houses, courts, banks, industries, and health boards ?

4. Give the advantages and disadvantages of grouping students by sex, nationality, occupation, educational background.

5. With regard to any nationality, discuss two effective and two ineffective methods of accelerating their Americanization.

6. Describe devices to overcome improper grading.

7. What is the relation between the waste of time in school and the exodus of foreigners from adult immigrant classes ?

8. In a given school the majority of the students fail to attend after a period of two months. How would you undertake an analysis of the situation in order to prevent its recurrence ?

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CHAPTER IV

THE TEACHER

Teacher training essential. Teachers of adult immigrants have ranged from the volunteer layman, with more enthusiasm than judgment, to the professional interested solely in additional compensation. Fortunately, the trend is now in another direction. But there still exists in the minds of some people the belief that the teaching of adult immigrant classes is a simple matter, that no special preparation is necessary, and that anyone who has sufficient command of the English language to speak it is thereby sufficiently qualified to teach classes of foreigners. Nothing can be farther from the truth, as is evidenced by the steps taken by school authorities, colleges, universities, and normal schools throughout the country. Courses for preparing teachers in the proper conduct of adult immigrant classes have been established in these institutions, and extension courses and lectures have aimed at the improvement of teachers in service. Such measures have steadily raised the standards until the majority of teachers in the field to-day have some preparation for the work. Whether the teacher is engaged in the evening schools, in the home or neighborhood classes, in factory classes, or elsewhere, there

should be specific training on his part for the task to be undertaken.

Knowledge of the student necessary. Knowledge of the immigrant, both as an individual and as a member of a group, is essential to success. The teacher should seek to know the past life of the student, his point of view, his interests, and his purposes. Such knowledge will serve as a foundation upon which to build the principles of Americanization. The appeal of the teacher should be through the heart as well as through the head. He should know the life of the foreigner in his home, in his occupation, and in his social activities. The essential characteristics of the teacher should include a pleasing personality and a sincere interest in the foreigner. The greater this interest, the closer will be the bond that ties the student to the school and ultimate citizenship.

The teacher who works with the student rather than for him will be following a method that is psychologically sound. He should learn his wants and then supply them as far as possible. It must be remembered that the foreigner comes to school of his own accord, that there is no compulsion behind him. He is aware of certain handicaps and feels that the school can assist in overcoming them. In addition, the teacher should understand the difficulties encountered by the foreign-born in his efforts to be assimilated. The student works hard and comes to school greatly fatigued. He is frequently skeptical about his ability to learn. The rebuffs and abuses he often suffers discourage him and give him the wrong impression of America and Americans.

Knowledge of immigrant background essential. A knowledge of immigrant background is a further step toward the success of the teacher. The many different groups that come to America have political, religious, and social ideas firmly implanted. A study of the influences that have molded the life of the student will result in a tolerant attitude toward his traditions, ideals, and standards and serve as an entering wedge for introducing the traditions, ideals, and standards of America.

The need of showing respect and sympathy for the foreigner in order to obtain from him a proper attitude and state of mind toward America has been epitomized in the following statement which, while applied specifically to the immigrant child, has equal, if not greater, force when addressed to the child's parents:

The immigrant . . . brings an alien experience and a very different national heritage — language, customs and folkways, art, song and music, poem and story, tradition and history.

What shall we do about it? One thing is absolutely demonstrable: that hostility and contempt and repression do not destroy or diminish the old loyalty but greatly intensify it. The evidence is conclusively written in the stories of Poland, Finland, Alsace Lorraine, Italy, and the diverse nationalities of the former dual monarchy. Modern psychology fully confirms the same principle.

A state of mind cannot be compelled. To obtain the attitude we desire toward American society, American institutions, and the American heritage, we are obliged to win a real respect and sympathy,

a genuine admiration, and upon this basis establish those habits and traits which are necessary for the making of a good American. We can do this in no other way than by first showing respect and sympathy for the heritage of the newcomer, since that is precious to him. We can always find points in common with what is American, and the special attention that must be given to things American do not in the least demand any spirit of arrogant superiority. As a matter of fact, much of the heritage which immigrant groups bring with them, particularly on the side of literature and art, are of positive value to us. Excessive uniformity among a people is undesirable. Social progress has been through the ages in a great part due to the contact of different groups. It is always retarded or arrested by undue isolation. Is it not better, then, from every point of view to make the newcomer feel that he has something to give as well as something to receive and that, if he will take up the duties of his new citizenship in the right spirit, he can make a real contribution to American society? Such a method of approach will actually promote rather than retard the development of a new spirit of loyalty.¹

Professional qualifications of the teacher. The teacher should be specially trained for his work and have a clear concept of the important objectives to be attained. He should know what to teach, how to teach, and have definite standards of achievement. Without these, his efforts will be aimless and ineffective.

The teacher should have well-planned courses of

¹ J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL — *Americanization of the Immigrant Child: Some Underlying Principles*; Sixth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings, University of Pennsylvania, 1919.

study. The contents of such courses should be thoroughly mastered so that they may be adapted to the needs of the class. Suggestive time distributions for lessons are also necessary, in order that emphasis may be placed where most needed. Such a program should be arranged for the entire school term and should be sufficiently flexible to permit of modifications and adjustments. The teacher who plans his work upon the basis of a set program and then finds it convenient and advisable to disregard such limitations in carrying out the work in the class is frequently a greater success than the teacher who adheres slavishly to programs and schedules.

Efficient teaching is dependent upon an understanding of practical, scientific methods and the wise choice of subject matter. The successful lesson is planned with these factors in mind :

1. Is the material of the lesson properly graded?
2. Is the time allotted to the lesson proportionate to the value of the subject?
3. Is the order of development from the concrete to the abstract?
4. Is the lesson of interest to the students?
5. Is the purpose of the lesson in conformity with the objectives of the subject?

Definite standards of achievement will serve to guide the teaching and measure the progress of the students. That such standards have not been satisfactorily formulated is due to the lack of adequate scientific experimentation in the field and the difficulties inherent in the work. Age, nationality, and previous education

vary so greatly among students that the problem of erecting standards of achievement is made especially difficult. Until standards are scientifically determined, the teacher will have to study the personnel of his class, its educational background, and its rate of progress, and determine for himself what degree of efficiency his particular group may be reasonably expected to attain.

Personal qualifications of the teacher. The personality of the teacher is one of the most important of his qualifications. He may know racial background thoroughly, be skilled in the choice of subject matter, and adept in applying the best methods, but still be ranked a failure. The teacher should be sympathetic and appreciative of the problems and limitations of the foreigner. He should have patience developed to the n -th degree, refrain from showing irritation and annoyance at the apparent slowness or stupidity of the students, possess tremendous energy and enthusiasm, and be dominated by the ideal of service.

The teacher's attitude toward the members of the class should, at all times, be irreproachable. Very often he is the only American with whom the students come into close contact, and their interpretation and opinion of America will be influenced by this contact. A certain dignity should always mark the teacher. It is this attribute that the student with an educational background expects to find in the American teacher. A sense of balance should be maintained between friendliness and undue familiarity. The one should be encouraged, the other suppressed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which is more important in a teacher of adult immigrants, knowledge of subject matter or skill in teaching?
2. What are the qualifications of the successful teacher of adult immigrants?
3. How may the teacher assist in the transformation of illiterate foreigners into intelligent American citizens?
4. Should teachers try to eradicate or sublimate sentiments of sectionalism, partisanship, and nationalism? How?
5. How may the teacher's personality help to keep the students in school?

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CHAPTER V

THE LEARNING PROCESS AS APPLIED TO THE TEACHING OF ADULT IMMIGRANTS

Habit formation and learning synonymous. The teacher who is familiar with the psychology of habit formation and applies its principles consistently should secure from the students a degree of efficiency far superior to that commonly found in our schools.

Habit has been defined as "the tendency to do, think, or act as one has done, thought, or acted in the past."¹ This statement is based on the psychological principle that if the response resulting from a given stimulus is satisfying, the recurrence of the same stimulus will tend to result in the same response. This tendency should be utilized in all education. The work in Americanization, particularly the learning of English, is identified with the formation of useful habits. Each new habit must replace or utilize an old one that functioned more or less satisfactorily in the old environment of the student, or a new habit must be formed to supply a need that did not exist prior to the student's journey to our shores.

Laws of habit formation. The laws of habit formation have been stated in a variety of ways. James

¹ GEORGE D. STRAYER and NAOMI NORSWORTHY — *How to Teach*; The Macmillan Company, 1917.

gives three laws of habit formation: “(1) We must take care to launch ourselves with as strong and decided an initiative as possible. (2) Never suffer an exception to occur till the new habit is securely rooted in your life. (3) Seize the very first possible opportunity to act on every resolution you make, and on every emotional prompting you may experience, in the direction of the habit you aspire to gain.”¹ Thorndike says: “The laws of connection forming, or association, or habit, furnish education with two obvious general rules: (1) Put together what should go together and keep apart what should not go together. (2) Reward desirable connections and make undesirable connections produce discomfort.”² The differences between these two sets of laws lie in the form of expression rather than in the content. Other psychologists have expressed the same thoughts in still different forms.

Habits cannot be definitely formed, nor can learning be profitable unless a definite goal has been established. The teacher should have clearly in mind the desired objectives of the work. Otherwise all efforts will be aimless and lacking in results. The first step toward the attainment of the desired objective or goal necessitates the conscious direction of all movements and actions with the desired end in view. Concomitant with the establishment of the proper activities and movements there must be drill and repetition of the desired actions, so that the bond may be strengthened

¹ WILLIAM JAMES — *Talks to Teachers*; Henry Holt and Company, 1899.

² E. L. THORNDIKE — *Educational Psychology, Briefer Course*; Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916.

sufficiently to cause the response to become more and more automatic. A habit is established most quickly and firmly when the repetitions are made without any reversion to the older method or form of response and when the repetitions are of short duration and frequently repeated. The interest is thus sustained during the learning process and the danger of forgetting minimized. The final step in the formation of habits is the determination of the progress that has been made toward the attainment of the desired objectives.

These principles may be briefly summarized as follows :

1. Set up a definite goal.
2. Consciously direct all movements toward the desired end.
3. Drill.
 - a. Permit no exceptions
 - b. Use short and frequent drill periods
4. Measure results.

Setting up a definite goal. Learning cannot be effective nor can any habit be deeply rooted unless there is a definite objective set up in the minds of both teacher and student. Without this, learning will be incidental. Adult immigrant classes differ from the regular day school classes in that the students register with the need of attaining a definite objective somewhat clearly in mind. It is due to an appreciation of the value of supplying a felt need that the evening school came into being. Thus the primary factor in the learning process is already determined for the teacher when he enters the classroom. To be sure,

the objectives of the individual members of the class differ. Thus it will be necessary for the teacher to determine why each student has come and to keep this in mind, so that the teaching may be made as effective as possible and the desired objectives of the students attained within as short a period of time as is compatible with the interest of the class as a whole. This will serve as the starting point of all instruction, the course being built around the needs and previous accomplishments of the class. Where the desired objective is the procurement of final naturalization papers, all the instruction should lead in that general direction. In a beginning class in English the immediate goal will be different.

The attainment of general objectives necessitates the acquisition of specific objectives as steps toward the desired goal. In establishing these intermediate guide posts, and also in the acquisition of the major objectives, the teacher should make sure that the habits to be formed are necessary and that the habits to be broken are useless. To illustrate: it is futile to attempt to make expert penmen of the students. If the forms of the letters are not perfect but are quite legible and not likely to be misinterpreted, it is a waste of time to change the students' methods of letter formation. Likewise, in pronunciation it is equally useless to set up as a goal the elimination of all traces of foreign accent. Such an aim would require the expenditure of more time and energy on the part of both teacher and students than the results would justify, even were the objective attainable. A consideration of the

pronunciation of the majority of the university professors of foreign language, most of whom have a highly developed cultural background, illustrates clearly the uselessness of such an unattainable goal. The elimination of the more characteristic errors of pronunciation is more attainable. These foreignisms usually mark the newcomer during the early days of his life in this country, and most of them can be considerably modified by instruction in phonics.

The elimination of the use of foreign idioms and sentence structure may also be accomplished. The foreigner has a tendency to use those forms characteristic of his native tongue, with the result that he often misinterprets and is often misunderstood. To illustrate :

“ I like to go by your house.”

“ Borrow me some money.”

“ He got for ten cents milk.”

“ I have a house rented.”

“ He has to me the letter read.”

In reading, a distinction should be made between the development of the physiological factors concerned and the growth of ability to grasp the thought content. With literates the physiological bases for reading have already been developed. With illiterates the situation is entirely different. They have not yet learned how to hold books, how to turn pages, nor have they acquired any facility in reading coherently. It will thus be seen that the goal to be established with literates and illiterates will be somewhat at variance. With the

former group no consideration need be taken of the mechanics of reading and the development of physiological factors.

Conscious direction of all efforts. Having determined the desired objectives and outlined the program of studies necessary to their attainment, the second principle should be applied, namely, the conscious direction of all efforts toward the achievement of the desired goal. Every lesson, exercise, or experience, both in the classroom and, as far as is possible, outside the walls of the school, should carry the student closer to the ultimate aim. Failure to direct the activities beyond the classroom results in lengthening the learning process by destroying the bonds that have been temporarily established in the class. It must be remembered that the more frequently a particular response is the result of a given situation, the stronger will be the bond between the situation and the response, and the more likely will be the same response when the situation again arises. Applied to the learning of English, this means that the more often one associates English symbols with objects, actions, and relationships, the greater will be the tendency to use English symbols in the future.

The inclination of man to repeat what he has done in the past is of vital importance in directing the efforts of the students toward the acquisition of the fundamentals of Americanism. A wrong start involves many dangers. The first response makes the greatest impression and influences all succeeding responses. Consequently, it is of considerable importance that the

first impression be the correct one. In learning new words the first few attempts determine the pronunciation. The value of this principle to the teacher of adult immigrants needs no particular emphasis. Pronunciation and enunciation should be so precise that the students will receive correct first impressions. It is also essential that the first impression should be through the ear rather than through the eye. New words should be presented orally in order that the students will hear the proper pronunciations before they see the words written. If words are seen before they are heard, there is considerable danger that the students will pronounce them according to the principles that govern in their native language. The Gouin or theme method is an excellent illustration of the conscious direction of all efforts toward the attainment of a definite goal.

Drill. The third principle grows out of the second and is inseparably bound to it. No habit can be formed without sufficient drill and repetition to make the desired bond so strong that the response approaches the automatic. The more often one does a thing, the better one is able to do it, and the less need there will be for concentrating the attention upon the desired response. This applies with equal force to learning a thing incorrectly. To take a common illustration, the difficulty experienced by teachers in correcting "It is me" is due to the fact that innumerable repetitions have so strongly formed the habit that it is very difficult to uproot. Another illustration of the force of habit is the tendency of foreigners learning English to use

the form of sentence structure they employ in their native tongue.

The formation of habits will hardly result in success if relapses occur. There should be consistent adherence to the thing that is to be made automatic. One exception may destroy all the ground work that has been built up at the expense of much time and energy. To insure this adherence, it is advisable that the teacher undertake to build only a few habits at a time and emphasize them until they have been thoroughly mastered. Exceptions that do occur are usually old habits reasserting themselves. This is particularly and often painfully true in learning a new language. The foreigner attempts to speak in the vernacular. The teacher's problem is to develop in the students the habit of speaking in English. To succeed in this, all the work of the classroom should be in English; and the students should be encouraged to use the new language in their homes and at their work. The less frequent the reversions to the native tongue, the more rapid will be the progress in acquiring facility in the use of English. The same principle applies to the formation of any other habit.

The classroom exercises should be so arranged that the length of a drill period in any subject shall be reduced to a minimum and still retain its maximum effectiveness. Further, the drills should be repeated at short intervals so that the effectiveness of the preceding drill may be strengthened.

The amount of drill necessary to form a particular habit is not known. It varies with the individual, the

habit to be formed, and the type of work undertaken. Other factors also enter to increase or decrease the length of the drill period. Drill, if it is to be time-saving, should compel attention. It should hold the interest of the students. After a habit has been formed the drill work should not be stopped suddenly. There should be a gradual diminution in the length of the drill periods and an increase in the length of the intervals between drills.

Repetition alone is not very effective. The learner should be conscious of what he is doing and make comparisons between his efforts and the model or his own previous efforts. Attention to the process of learning results in shortening the period necessary to make the act automatic or habitual. The value of attention while learning is recognized by the skillful teacher in the introduction of devices. These serve to hold the interest by varying the details of the work. It has been experimentally proved that interest cannot be held for a long period, that it flags even in those who bend their energies to keep it constant. It is much better to have short, snappy periods of drill, where interest and effort are maintained, than long periods with lack of interest and much fatigue. The application of this to adult immigrant classes is readily apparent. The majority of the students come to school after a day of hard and exhausting labor. Their interest may be great, but their physical condition will not long sustain such interest and attention unless the teacher varies the program, making each lesson short and vigorous and introducing attention-compelling devices.

If the desired response is to tend to perpetuate itself, it must be accompanied by satisfaction rather than annoyance or displeasure. Such satisfaction may be found in the feeling of pleasure that accompanies successful accomplishment, or it may be in recognition and encouragement by others. The teacher can render a very valuable service in this connection by praising the correct responses and encouraging greater activity.

Measuring results. The rate of learning during the initial period, while dependent upon many factors, is usually very rapid. After a time there is less progress. Not infrequently there is even a loss in ability. This period of loss is eventually regained and is followed by a period of rapid advance. Throughout the entire learning process there is an alternation of rest intervals and periods of progress. The teacher will do well to watch closely the transition from stage to stage and adjust the teaching to suit the needs of the different periods of progress. There is special cause for the exercise of ingenuity during the "plateau" period, or the time when there is no apparent progress. During the period of noticeable progress, the advance made is often quite sufficient to sustain the interest of the class. The plateau interval carries with it certain elements of danger. The lack of progress tends to discourage the students and cause them to discontinue the efforts that are essential to further growth. The teacher should endeavor to build up a feeling of self-confidence in the students that will carry them over the critical periods and, at the same time, organize the

subject matter so that the number and length of plateau periods will be minimized. It is only by measuring the results and providing devices to suit the stages of development that the teacher will be able to carry the work through to a successful conclusion.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Outline a talk on the psychologic and pedagogic bases for adult immigrant education.

2. Assume that you are in charge of an evening school and that you wish your teachers to form a reading circle. Plan a course of five topics on educational psychology that will be of value to the teachers in their work.

3. Arrange a summary of the principles of learning which should prove of aid to the teacher in the preparation of his daily lessons and in the conduct of his recitations.

4. Give concrete illustrations of the actions of students that demonstrate properly motivated interest in a subject.

5. Show how methods of instruction may be utilized in the formation of good habits.

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CHAPTER VI

METHODS OF TEACHING

The need of efficient methods. The particular method to be employed in teaching depends upon the subject matter, the purpose of the lesson, the preparation of the students, and the importance of the lesson in relation to the entire course of study. A teacher should not become so attached to any one method that he becomes a slave to it. Rather should he become conversant with many, and slave to none. The number of possible methods of teaching is large. Not all are of equal value, nor are they all clearly defined. Many overlap, others are offshoots of older methods, and still others are combinations of two or more. Some of the more common methods are briefly discussed.

The direct method. All methods of teaching a language may be classified under one of two headings, direct or indirect. The former emphasizes the use of the language being taught as the language of instruction, both as a means and as an end. In teaching English to foreigners the instruction should be in English. This method is the only rational one inasmuch as the study of a language must be based on the spoken idiom. It is the best method for attaining the desired objectives in the shortest space of time and in the most effective manner.

The use of the direct method necessitates a careful reading of earlier lessons so that new words or expressions may be easily and adequately explained with the aid of those already known. It trains the students to think in the new language, not to translate into their native tongue and back again into English. The direct method is most successful when the lessons are short and often repeated, with constant drill upon each new feature presented.

The indirect method. The indirect method makes use of the vernacular of the students as the medium of instruction. The new words to be taught are first translated into the foreigner's tongue. This method involves associations not called for in the direct method. The student sees or hears a word in English, thinks of its equivalent in his own language, and from this gets the meaning. If asked for an English word, he thinks of the object, action, or relationship, then the word in the vernacular which represents it, and from this recalls the English equivalent. In the direct method there is no middle association, the mental processes working from the object to the English symbol for it, or vice versa. The indirect method is slower, more laborious, less productive of results, and not psychologically sound.

A still greater disadvantage in the use of the indirect method is that it is deadening to activity on the part of the students. It requires no great effort on their part to understand what the teacher says, as long as he uses the vernacular. If the student fails to recognize or remember a particular English word, he asks

for the equivalent and is given it. Teachers who have attempted to learn a foreign language by means of the vernacular will readily recall the ease with which the newly acquired words were forgotten. Most students of the indirect method are only too well aware of the fact that its use does not result in acquiring the ability to speak the language. The most that can be obtained from such a method is the ability to recognize words but, in most cases, an utter inability to express even a simple thought in the foreign tongue.

It is expecting too much to hope that the same method will prove more effective in teaching foreigners English. Many of them are illiterate in their own tongue. Practically all of them come to school physically tired and are often incapable of exerting themselves sufficiently to pay attention to the classroom work. Using the vernacular gives them a sense of security. They readily comprehend what is said and their full attention is not centered on the work in hand. The Gouin method, or any other direct method, with its simple, well-chosen sentences, does much to keep the students alert and attentive and is much more productive in results.

The indirect method is of value as a device. Occasions will be found when a student will fail to grasp the meaning of a particular word or phrase after it has been explained and the remainder of the class fully comprehends it. It would not be fair to the class as a whole to spend more time trying to make the meaning of the expression clear. The best procedure is for the teacher to give the equivalent in the student's vernac-

ular or, if the teacher is not acquainted with the student's tongue, to have one of the other members of the class furnish the needed word. The use of the vernacular is also justified, with the same limitations, in making clear the meanings of technical terms and abstract phrases. In all cases an attempt should first be made to secure comprehension through the medium of the English language. Even if the use of the indirect method were justifiable as sound psychological and pedagogical procedure, there would be present the difficulty of securing a sufficient number of teachers familiar with the vernacular of the students, especially since the typical class is composed of students representing several nationalities.

The Gouin (theme) method. François Gouin, a Frenchman, developed the method that has taken his name. It is a direct method and takes as a unit a definite topic. A series of sentences is constructed, each sentence adding a specific step toward the completion of the theme selected. This method is the result of Gouin's attempt to learn the German language. After many futile efforts to learn through a study of grammar, by translation, by a study of the dictionary, and by using many other methods which were equally unsuccessful, he found a solution in observing a child who had gone to a mill and had seen how flour was made. The child went over his experiences at play and built up a sequence of actions and statements, each contributing toward the completion of the experience. From this study Gouin built up a method of learning a language by means of the "theme," which consisted of a

series of connected sentences, each describing a particular act which served to define a more general act or experience. This method has proved of great value in teaching a language and is in general use to-day.

The teacher determines what the theme is to be, taking care to select one that can be applied immediately to the daily lives of his students. He then builds up a series of sentences describing the actions necessary to accomplish the purpose of the theme. The subject may be "to open the door," "to look for work," "to eat breakfast," "to introduce a friend," "to make the bed," or "to buy a suit of clothes." The verb plays the most important part in the theme, all other parts of speech being built around it.

Gouin's method, as set forth in "The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages," divides the theme into very minute parts, every act, regardless of its lack of importance, being indicated. Such a procedure is neither necessary nor advisable in immigrant classes. The theme should be separated into its large elements, care being exercised to reduce the number of statements to a minimum and still retain a connected sequence of sentences.

A factor not considered by Gouin, but one that is essential in teaching adult immigrants, is the degree of literacy of the students. The procedure in teaching literates will vary somewhat from that followed in presenting the same lesson to an illiterate group. Thompson, in "Schooling of the Immigrant," gives the first of the following procedures as the method to be employed in presenting the theme, although he does

not make a differentiation between literates and illiterates.

Procedure in teaching theme to literates

1. The teacher performs the act and speaks the sentence, e.g. "I open my eyes." The first appeal is therefore through the ear, and the association established is directly between the expression and the idea.

2. The pupils perform the act and speak the sentence. This supplies a supplementary association between the idea and the spoken words of the pupil.

3. The teacher performs the act, speaks the sentence, and writes or prints the words on the board. Some teachers permit pupils to read these sentences as developed in a text. This gives another form of association, i.e. idea, spoken words, written words.

4. The pupils perform the act, speak the sentence, read it from the board — again a triple association.

5. The pupils copy the sentence.

6. The pupils write the sentence from dictation.

7. The pupils write the sentence from memory.

8. The teacher approves the efforts of the pupil at all stages by encouraging him in such words as "Good," "That's right," "Try again," "I like that." Such expressions Gouin calls "subjective language." The purpose of the subjective language is to speed the pupil on and at the same time to teach him the meanings of expressions which cannot be objectified and dramatized.

Procedure in teaching theme to illiterates

1, 2, 3. (Same as with literate pupils.)

4. The pupil performs the act and speaks the sentence, attempting to read from the board while doing so.

5. Limit the theme to three or four sentences.

6. Drill in sentence differentiation. Write sentences on paper and hold up for the class to see (flash cards). Arrange these cards in order. Drill until the pupils can recognize the sentences regardless of their order.

7. Break up the sentences into words until each word is recognized.

8. Give the pupils a sight vocabulary of at least one hundred words.

9. After the illiterates recognize and understand the meanings of one hundred words, begin to group them phonetically, *e.g.* bake, book, etc., to teach the value of "b." Follow the same procedure for other letters and phonograms.

10. The subjective language is brought in with the objective language and is carefully planned.

Procedure in forming themes. Occasions may arise when the teacher will desire to present a theme that is not included in the text being used, or he may doubt the value of a theme as presented in the book. In such instances he should :

1. Analyze the students' needs to determine the applicability of a particular theme or to determine the subject matter for the preparation of a theme.

2. Analyze the theme into a number of sentences or minor acts that describe the theme. These sentences must be associated in meaning and have a logical sequence.

3. Judge the theme by the following tests :

a. Does the subject involve a vocabulary of the most frequently used English words?

- b. Is it highly objective, *i.e.* does it lend itself to dramatization?
- c. Is the theme short?
- d. Does each sentence in the theme consist of only one thought?
- e. Is there coherence between sentences?
- f. Is the vocabulary or sentence structure of value in other connections, *e.g.* phonics, idiomatic expressions?

Variations in theme method. The next development of this method leads to the introduction of themes in which the emphasis is on the expression of things seen. First, the teacher performs the action and the student explains what he saw. Then a student performs the same action and another student describes. The use of the second and third persons can be very readily taught by this method. The student performing an action may describe it as, "I open the door." In explaining the same action by the teacher, the student would say, "You open the door." A similar performance by another student would be described as "He opens the door." Number and tense may be varied also, with no difficulty experienced in making them clear.

The following device is of value in teaching nouns. The teacher holds or touches the object and says, "This is a chair." After repeating this statement several times he asks, "What is this?" The response may be in concert at first to give confidence to the students. After the concert recitation various members of the class should be singled out to give the response individually. The lesson is not completed until

the sentences are written on the board and read by the class. It should be kept in mind that the number of new words introduced at any one time by this device should be limited.

Variety may be given the lesson by changing the device used to introduce the names of the objects. In place of "This is," the teacher may say, "I see," or "I have," or may write the name of an object on the board and have a student point to the object and give a sentence, "That is a —." The word may be written on a piece of paper and handed to a student who is to go to the object and say, "This is a —."

Adjectives may be easily introduced by qualifying a noun. The teacher says, "This is a *tall* man," indicating the meaning of tall. In teaching adjectives it is advisable to associate opposites in a lesson, as: tall, short; thick, thin; high, low; big, little; wide, narrow. The object of the lesson is not attained when the student knows the names of the objects and the meanings of the adjectives; he must also be able to use the words in other sentences. Students may be led to accomplish this by skillful questioning on the part of the teacher. Care must be taken, however, to see that the question is so constructed that it will elicit the proper response. With beginning students, only that type of question should be used that requires in the answer a repetition of all but one or a few of the words used in the question, *e.g.* "Who cuts the bread?" "John cuts the bread."¹

¹ H. H. HORNE — *Story Telling, Questioning, and Studying*; The Macmillan Company, 1916.

Dramatization will be found valuable in making clear the meanings of prepositions denoting position. The teacher performs the action and emphasizes the position and the preposition simultaneously. In the sentence "The book is *on* the table," the preposition is stressed and the position indicated. The sentence and action should be repeated several times to insure understanding. This is followed by having several students repeat the sentence, then a combination of action with a statement of action by the students. The appeal to the eye should not be neglected by failing to place the sentence on the board, underlining or otherwise indicating the preposition. The procedure may be varied at a later stage in the students' development by having them indicate their understanding of the meanings of prepositions by obeying commands given by the teacher or by students, as, "Put the book in the bookcase."

Limitations of the theme method. The Gouin method has its limitations. Its only service is with the beginners' class. Actions are readily understood by the students. They can express such actions in their own language with considerable ease. What they need is the ability to express themselves in English. The statements of the teacher form the connecting link between the actions and the English symbols which describe the actions. The association is direct and readily formed. The placing of the sentences on the board tends to strengthen the association by appealing to the eye as well as the ear. Performance by the students serves as a third means of association. The

theme method is to be dropped when the students no longer need objectified language, or when they are able to comprehend meanings without the aid of dramatization.

The analytic method. The first step in the learning process involves the securing of a concept of a large unit. It is only after the larger and more general concept has been formed that it may be torn down into its elements in order to secure a more definite and thorough understanding. The theme method is an illustration of an analytic process, in that it is composed of a large unit which is broken into smaller and more specific elements.

The synthetic method. The method of teaching a language by building up the elements has not proved effective. Using the alphabet or words as units will not enable the students to learn to speak a language. Nor will language instruction based on a study of the grammar prove effective. Building words from letters, phrases and sentences from words, or conjugating verbs does not enable the student to express his wants in the language he is endeavoring to learn. Consequently, the synthetic method, at least as it concerns the learning of a language, cannot be employed effectively.

The inductive method. Inductive reasoning derives a general law from a study of numerous particular examples and specific processes. The five formal steps of Herbartian pedagogy, preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization, and application, are based on induction. All lessons do not conform to this plan

of organization. Preparation is for the purpose of bridging the gap between the known and the unknown by drawing on the experiences of the students and leading them to an easy understanding of the new lesson to be presented. The presentation acquaints the students with the subject matter of the new lesson. Comparisons follow as the next step toward a clearer understanding of the subject. Generalization is the formulation of a conclusion based on the subject matter as developed in the presentation and comparison. Application verifies the conclusion drawn and, through drill, tests the comprehension of the students. The inductive method is of value in presenting subjects other than English.

The deductive method. This is the converse of induction. The general law is first stated, then specific examples are cited to prove and verify the law. There is no discovering of knowledge, nor is there a development of a mode of thought as in induction. The student simply verifies laws and acquires well-established rules and facts. Even though the deductive method lacks some of the values inherent in the inductive method, it has its place in the teacher's program. Use of the deductive method is justified when time limitations will not permit the use of the inductive method.

The textbook method. One of the objectives of adult immigrant education should be the development of initiative in the students. They should be encouraged to undertake a task and direct their energies toward its accomplishment. The textbook method serves as a direct aid in this. It does not mean handing

a textbook to each student and then neglecting to direct his efforts. There should be a specific purpose in each lesson; the student should know what to do and have some idea of how to accomplish the aim of the lesson. The values of this method are: (1) it develops the ability to extract thought from the printed page, (2) it develops a feeling of self-reliance, (3) it enables the student to measure his progress in terms of the number of lessons completed.

There is, however, a danger of no small importance in the too frequent use of the textbook method. The teacher who forms the habit of slavishly following the text is prone to present the lessons in the order of their appearance in the book regardless of their applicability. This point may be aptly illustrated by reference to an incident observed in a class for mothers. The teacher in charge followed the text without modifications and was apparently unaware that a lesson on baseball which appeared in the text had no interest or value to the class. When asked why she taught a lesson on baseball she replied that it was the next lesson in the text. Apparently the teacher in question had failed to realize that a text is only an aid to the classroom work and should be modified and adapted to the needs of the students.

The laboratory method. This is more a device than a method. It is valuable as an adjunct to the work in civics, using the term in its broader sense as expressed by Shiels, "an attempt to show the foreigner how he may react on the conditions of living in the particular place in which he lives, performing his duty as law and

local customs require, and learning the facilities and opportunities which his community offers him for spiritual and material improvement.”¹

The institutions of a city, the library, city hall, the health centers, historical sites, and memorials can only be objectified by having the students visit them. Such visitations are of great benefit to the students and also serve to establish a closer bond between the teacher and students than is possible in the classroom. Prior to such trips the teacher should utilize a portion of the classroom time to prepare an itinerary and make clear the objectives of the trip. The classroom period immediately following the visit and the period of the trip itself should be devoted to discussions concerning the institutions visited.

The eclectic method. The eclectic method combines the useful and desirable features of all methods and eliminates those that do not apply. The essence of this method has been epitomized by Monroe in the following words :

“The educational thought of the present seeks to summarize these movements of the recent past and to rearrange and relate the essential principles of each in one harmonious whole. The educational activity of the present seeks the same harmony in reducing these principles to practical classroom procedure. The frequent changes in subject-matter, in method, in organization, bring their own evils and appear as curious phenomena to conservative educations of more stable societies. Yet they are recognitions that new principles have been formulated, new truths

¹ ALBERT SHIELS — *The School and the Immigrant*; New York City, Department of Education, Division of Research and Reference (Publication No. 11, 1915).

recognized, and that practice controlled by tradition or by principles derived from a partial view alone must be readjusted in close accord with the new truths derived from the ever-expanding knowledge of life and of nature.”¹

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Prepare a bibliography on methods of teaching the various subjects included in the curriculum for adult immigrants. In a brief sentence state the value of each reference.

2. Construct a theme for students in a beginners' class. What exercises would you base on the theme?

3. Discuss the value of objective material in teaching the adult immigrant.

4. Give five or six advantages of visual instruction.

5. Discuss the Gouin method and develop a theme by this method.

6. Outline a direct method of teaching English to foreigners.

7. What should be the teacher's rule in regard to digressions?

8. Plan a lesson in civics for an advanced class, using the inductive method.

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CHAPTER VII

THE DAILY PROGRAM AND CLASS MANAGEMENT

I. THE DAILY PROGRAM

The bases for a program. The courses of study and the amount of time to be devoted to each should be determined by the objectives of the course, the approximate length of time required to attain the objectives, and the previous preparation of the students. After a satisfactory time distribution has been worked out, it should not be adhered to slavishly. It may so happen that more rapid progress is made in one or more subjects than was anticipated. If such a condition exists, it would be futile to carry the students beyond a sufficiently high standard of achievement. A modification of the program would be preferable because it would permit a more rapid advancement in another subject.

The teacher is best qualified to state the length of time that should be devoted to each subject. He is acquainted with the needs and abilities of his students. However, the relative importance of the various phases of language instruction is accepted more or less by the workers in the field. It is generally recognized that oral training ranks supreme in importance. Consequently it should have the largest time allotment.

Reading holds second place in importance, with written work ranking lowest. An effective time allotment should show such variations.

Suggested programs and time allotments. In formulating a program of studies the teacher must bear in mind that the adjustment of time limits should be determined by the needs of his students, and that variations are dependent on the length of session, the number of sessions per week, and the length of the school year. The inclusion of any subject in the curriculum is determined by its relative importance, the most vital receiving primary consideration. When elimination becomes necessary, due to lack of time or some other cause, the subjects of least importance are, quite naturally, the first to be dropped from the program.

Time allotment for beginners — illiterate

Phonics — 10 minutes

Sight words — 10 minutes

Reading (silent, oral, themes) — 35 minutes

Conversation, including greetings — 30 minutes

Structure drill — 15 minutes

Writing — 20 minutes

Time allotment for beginners — literate

Phonics — 5 minutes

Review — 15 minutes

Oral presentation of new lesson and conversation —
50 minutes

Reading — 20 minutes

Writing — 15 minutes

Structure drill — 15 minutes

PROGRAM FOR INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED CLASSES

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY
7.30-8.00	Reading	Structure drill (7.30-7.50)	Letter writing
8.00-8.15	Conversation	Arithmetic	Correction of previous letters
8.15-8.25	Structure drill	(7.50-8.15)	Spelling
8.25-8.55	Spelling	Spelling	Poem study
	History	Geography	Literature
8.55-9.05	Dictionary	Suffix-prefix	Newspapers
		Synonym-homonym	Magazines
9.05-9.30	Hygiene	Civics	Club meetings
		Citizenship	Citizenship

It will be noted that there is a variation between the time allotments for literate and illiterate beginners. So different are these groups in mental ability, educational background, and the rate of progress in learning English, that each requires, initially at least, a differentiation of method, time allotment, and frequently of subject matter. Whereas the greatest division of time is given over to conversation and oral presentation of the theme or topic in both divisions, there will be found a far greater necessity for phonics, sight drills, and conversation in the illiterate classes. Progress in the latter is slow at best but will vary, depending on the nationality, sex, and the length of time that the students have spent in this country.

The time allotment suggested for intermediate and advanced students is identical. The variations should be in the quantity and detail of subject matter and the rate of progress. The time allotments were formulated with the following factors as criteria :

1. The necessity for variety in subject matter in order to hold and increase the interest of the students.
2. The necessity for giving the students subject matter fitting their particular needs and a distribution of the time in accordance with the importance of each subject.
3. The necessity for concentrating the subject matter on oral work. Such subjects as hygiene, history, arithmetic, geography, and civics are meant to be the bases for oral discussions rather than academic studies entailing classroom recitations and written work.
4. The necessity for helping the students to adapt themselves more speedily to their new environment, of giving them an adequate understanding of American standards of living and American ideals, of preparing them for naturalization and citizenship.

The formulation of a program and adherence to it serves definitely to crystallize the work of the evening. The teacher is enabled to prepare his work readily and effectively. He knows what he has to do and how much time he has at his disposal in which to complete the work.

II. CLASS MANAGEMENT

Class equipment. Schools giving instruction to adult foreigners are often ill-adapted to the physical needs of the students. The desks and benches designed for use by children are offered without apology to the adults. The foreigners are expected to fit themselves into desks that are much too small for comfort and remain there for a period of approximately two hours. The wonder of it is that so many are willing to do it. If the best results are to be secured, we will no longer

continue to crowd adults into desks built for twelve or fourteen year old children, but will see that suitable seating arrangements are furnished. A chair and table or the typical high school armchair serve the purpose admirably.

The ventilation problem is often complicated by the students themselves. The air in a room containing twenty or more adults, many coming directly from their places of employment, is not too good at best. The air should be kept as fresh as possible, without making the room too cold. Many of the foreigners have an antipathy for fresh air and are sometimes insistent that all windows remain closed. Under such conditions the teacher should remain adamant and insist on proper ventilation. The value of proper atmospheric conditions in the classroom will be useful as a lesson for oral development.

The lighting facilities are usually fixed and incapable of modification. Where the teacher has a choice of location he should endeavor to secure a classroom with adequate lighting facilities in order that there may be as little eye strain as possible.

Additional classroom helps that make for the comfort and well being of the students and aid in furthering instruction are cloak rooms, blackboard space, maps, decorations, and a bulletin board.

The social side of the Americanization work is assuming greater importance daily. Assemblies, entertainments, dances, concerts, dramatics, patriotic and citizenship exercises are becoming functions of the evening school. The need and importance of this

phase of the work is discussed elsewhere in this volume. For the purpose of this chapter it must be pointed out that the greatest success along social lines can be attained only in a school having a sufficiently large auditorium and stage, a motion-picture machine, and a gymnasium.

Texts and supplies. Each student should have a reading book to serve as a basic text for the class. This text should be supplied by the students themselves on the recommendation of the teacher. Additional supplementary texts may be furnished by the school. Constant reference to the same text, no matter how interestingly the material may be presented, is likely to result in monotony. The students should be expected to furnish their own pencils and notebooks. Blank paper and a few extra pencils should be kept on hand by the teacher to meet the needs of students who have neglected to bring theirs.

The spirit of the classroom. In the last analysis the greatest good comes as a result of the spirit engendered by the teacher in the students of his class. The desks may be uncomfortable, the lighting bad, the ventilation poor, and the classroom helps wanting, yet the students may literally throng to the school. The subjects of instruction, whether English, civics, or history, must be made so attractive and worth while to the immigrants that they will continue to avail themselves of the opportunities presented. The secret of such a desire may be attributed to what, for want of a better name, is called "atmosphere." Students should be made to feel that they are welcome, that the

school and classroom are theirs. The relationships among students and between student and teacher should be both friendly and sympathetic. The teacher should make the student feel that he is a factor in a social unit. He should encourage the student-body to make him their confidant, to bring problems to him for advice. There is a line, however, that should be drawn between student and teacher. The point where friendly interest ends and undue familiarity begins is to be sensed rather than defined, and depends largely upon the teacher.

The introduction of before-school activities serves a very useful purpose in creating an atmosphere of helpfulness. Many students arrive before the time set for the beginning of regular classroom work. They will welcome the opportunity of undertaking some extra assignment that will assist them in their efforts to improve their knowledge of the language. The emphasis in this type of instruction should be on the phase of work in which each particular student is weakest. With one it may be writing, with another pronunciation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Assume that a beginners' class is divided into three groups, illiterates, students with a little educational background, and students with a superior educational background. What subjects would you use in teaching each of the three groups? What differentiation in time allotment would you make?

2. What differentiation would you make in subject

matter and method for literates and illiterates in a beginning class?

3. Justify the spending of fifty minutes out of two hours for conversational work in a beginners' class.

4. Construct a lesson plan for the first day's work in a class of twenty illiterates. State in detail the scope of work and method of instruction.

5. Compare the problem of class management as applied to an adult immigrant class with that of an elementary day class.

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CHAPTER VIII

COURSES OF STUDY

I. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

The selection of subject matter. Whatever the method or methods employed, the teacher should bear in mind that the subject matter should be developed according to psychological rather than logical considerations. The apparent ease with which the subject matter may be arranged in a logical order should not cloud the issue. The teacher's point of view should always be that of the learner, and the organization of materials and the presentation of subject matter should be determined on this basis. To illustrate: logically, the study of English in adult immigrant classes might begin with the alphabet, expand to syllables, then words, then sentences; that is, from isolated elements to meaningful wholes. The study of arithmetic might begin with integers involving the four fundamental operations, advance to fractions, then decimals, and so on. Nowhere in this arrangement is account taken of the interests and needs of the student or his self-motivation and development. On the other hand, using the psychological development of subject matter, the teacher would delve into the experiences of the student, learn his hopes and desires, and give him the

necessary tools with which to utilize his past knowledge as a short cut in his difficulties of adaptation to a new environment. The teacher who has studied the needs and intellectual status of his student and has acquired a knowledge of his present activities will quickly realize the futility of beginning the English work with a study of the alphabet, when what is required is the idiomatic language of life situations which confront the student daily. Likewise, it may not be logical to teach the arithmetic connected with the figuring of wages in piece work immediately after the student has learned the English words for the various numbers; but, in so far as it represents an urgent necessity, there is a psychological justification for its selection as subject matter.

It should be remembered that the students are anxious to express themselves in English to their associates in the shop and on the street. The subject matter should be such as to promote this. The students are not primarily interested in rules of grammar or syntax. Consequently, the subject matter of the early lessons should reflect possible life situations of the students so that the vocabulary gained may be put to immediate use. This procedure will quickly build up a vocabulary of several hundred words and enable the foreigner to speak our language with sufficient facility to be understood. Likewise, the subject matter for reading and writing lessons should be selected on the basis of utility. The typical primary readers can hardly be considered as serviceable. Such writing as a foreigner may have to do will usually consist of giving his name,

age, address, and other facts concerning his personal life, answering advertisements for jobs, and writing letters.

The gradation of subject matter. In learning a language, speaking should precede both reading and writing. The two latter subjects should be emphasized in the order named. The greatest need of the foreigner is the ability to make his wants understood; and usually this can be done most effectively by word of mouth. His next most urgent need is the ability to understand the written thoughts of others, as expressed in the daily newspapers, street car signs, notices, warnings, and letters. Of least immediate value is his ability to write. For a time, most of his correspondence will be with people of his own nationality, hence he will use his native language as the medium. This does not mean that writing should be neglected; it simply serves to point out the relative value of the three forms of expression.

To summarize, the teaching of a language involves a consideration of the following processes:

1. Comprehension of the spoken symbol — the ability to understand the oral expressions of others.
2. Speaking the language — the ability to give oral expression sufficiently well to be understood by others.
3. Understanding written symbols — the ability to get thought from the printed page or from script.
4. Written composition — the ability to express thoughts and ideas in original written form.

The principle that speaking a language should precede both reading and writing, and the corollary that

reading is of greater value to the learner than writing does not mean that the subjects should be taught separately and in isolation. It is obvious that the three forms of expression should be taught simultaneously in order to furnish as many associations as possible. The language structure learned in reading and writing will undoubtedly aid the spoken language.

The gradation of method. It is essential that the teacher, in addition to taking cognizance of the relative importance of the three forms of expression and of selecting the subject matter and making allotments of time on this basis, should apply a few fundamental principles of method in his teaching to the end that his work may be as effective as possible. Failure to adapt the method of teaching to conform to the following basic principles lessens the effectiveness of the work :

1. Hearing new words, phrases, or sentences should precede seeing them.

2. Oral repetition of new words and forms of expression should be developed before the reading of them.

3. Reading should be introduced through chorus work before individual work is undertaken.

4. Original work in speaking, reading, and writing should be developed only after there has been sufficient drill on all three forms of expression to insure satisfactory results.

These principles find their fullest exemplification in the theme method (see Chapter VI). It is the succession of themes, each adding new words to the student's vocabulary and new structure difficulties, and each conforming to the principles of gradation, that makes

for the ready acquisition of language during the early period of the student's school life.

The value of association. In teaching a language, the more numerous and varied the associations the more effective will be the results. Not only must new words and sentences be presented orally, but they should be written on the board so that the students may have the opportunity of seeing the symbols that they have already heard and understood. The presentation of the visual symbols enables the students to associate the object, action, or relationship with the word or words which represent it, as well as permitting an association between the sound and the written symbol. Without the visual form of symbol, these two associations are not possible. An illustration may be found in teaching the sentence, "I walk to the door." Following the principles of gradation of method, the teacher would pronounce the words very slowly and distinctly several times while performing the action. By this means the students would learn to associate the sounds of the words with the action they represent. The teacher would then place the words on the board, point to them, and say them while performing the action, thereby forming in the minds of the students a new association between the visual symbols and the action they represent.

If such associations are firmly fixed, the presence of any one association should be sufficient to call the others to mind; that is to say, the action should call to mind the visual and auditory symbols. Likewise, the written sentence should recall the action it repre-

sents, together with the sounds of the words. The verbal presentation of the sentence should, in like manner, be associated with the action and the visual symbols.

The scope of the courses. The courses of study as outlined are meant to be but suggestive to the teacher. They are to be considered as maximum, rather than minimum in content, and contain what current practice and experimentation have indicated as being most valuable for the student. The teacher may, with profit, take from them whatever can be used to greatest advantage in his classroom to fit the needs of his particular problem. The successful teacher of immigrants is the ingenious one who is constantly on the lookout for new subject matter.

The opportunist viewpoint. Teachers often become discouraged by their inability to create discussion among students. Mental sluggishness, fatigue, or an uninteresting textbook are the explanations usually given for the unresponsive attitude of the students. As a matter of fact, the teacher's lack of initiative and his inability to seize opportunities are responsible.

A classroom was recently visited in which the teacher was attempting to create discussion by questioning the students about the reading they had just finished. The topic was related to the work of the blacksmith. Obviously, the students were not interested in the subject, and the response was, therefore, negligible. The teacher was asked whether he had used the Johnson Immigration Bill, the facts of which were in that day's newspaper, as a means of creating conversation

and discussion. He had not thought of it. To prove that effective reaction could be obtained from the students, the visitor spoke to the class about the bill and justified its passage. What was anticipated was quickly realized. A heated discussion followed in which all the members of the class participated in condemning the bill as unjust and prejudiced. The topic furnished not only the desired oral expression but offered an opportunity of presenting the side of the immigration question that was probably not mentioned in the foreign newspapers. The teacher lacked the opportunist viewpoint. Had he used more initiative in his lesson planning and less reliance on the textbook, his difficulties would have been fewer.

To summarize: every opportunity should be seized to invite conversation and discussion. The life-history of the students, local incidents, national holidays, current events, all that may be of vital interest to the student should be used by the teacher as the basis for lessons, provided such topics lead toward the attainment of the desired objectives of Americanization.

Correlation. The teacher should appreciate the value of correlation. He knows that a theme designed for the mere purpose of teaching vocabulary is not as valuable as the one that is planned to include elements that lend themselves to phonic, spelling, and structure drill. He realizes that a civics lesson on the Declaration of Independence taught without correlating the topic with the historical background leading up to the writing of the document, or the environmental influence which fostered the spirit of independence and love of

liberty among the colonists, loses much that is interesting and valuable.

II. BEGINNING COURSE (FIRST YEAR)

- I. Oral English (informal)
- II. Oral English (formal)
- III. Reading
- IV. Phonics
- V. Penmanship
- VI. Copying and dictation
- VII. Spelling
- VIII. Structure drill
- IX. Composition
- X. Memorization work
- XI. Hygiene
- XII. Geography
- XIII. History
- XIV. Civics and citizenship
- XV. Arithmetic

I. Oral English (informal)

- A. Buying for the home.
- B. Buying apparel.
- C. Renting a house or flat.
- D. Asking one's way.
- E. Telling time.
- F. Personal introduction.
- G. Work — application for a job, raise, day off, etc.
- H. Expressions concerning the weather.
- I. Complaints — store, gas, milkman, etc.
- J. Travel — buying tickets, checking baggage, etc.
- K. Going to the doctor, dentist, hospital, and clinic.

L. Banking — opening an account, depositing and withdrawing money.

M. Facts pertaining to personal history.

N. Ordering a meal.

O. Greeting a friend.

P. Entering a child in school.

II. Oral English (formal)

A. Identification — name, address, age, occupation, country of birth, length of time in the United States, married or single, names of children and wife, boarder or householder, employer's name and address, and schooling.

B. Immediate environment — home, school, factory or place of employment; street and neighborhood; cars, stores, and church.

C. Vocational.

1. Occupations.

2. Industrial signs — Keep Out, Danger, Look Out, Entrance, Employment Office, etc.

3. Employees' situations — applying for a position, a day off, excuse for absence, asking for a raise.

D. Relations between the home and family.

1. Parts of the house.

2. Names of the rooms.

3. Furniture.

4. Utensils.

5. Members of the family and their occupations.

6. Family scenes.

E. Weather, temperature, and time.

1. Common expressions.

2. Divisions of time.

3. Days, weeks, months, year, and seasons.

F. Hygiene (see under separate heading).

G. Geography (see under separate heading).

H. History (see under separate heading).

I. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).

J. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

III. Reading

A. Material developed on the board from the conversation and themes.

B. Signs.

1. Industrial — Danger, Office, Look Out, etc.
2. Theatrical — Box Office, Entrance, Exit, etc.
3. Railroad — Stop — Look — Listen, Do Not Cross the Tracks, etc.
4. Store — Count Your Change, Cashier, etc.
5. Bank — Receiving Teller, Paying Teller, etc.
6. Real Estate — To Let, For Rent, Apartment, etc.

C. Reading from textbooks.

D. Newspapers (the latter part of the year).

1. Help wanted ads.
2. Store advertisements.
3. Weather conditions.
4. News items that are within the scope of the students' knowledge of English.

IV. Phonics

A. Corrective Exercises (pronunciation).

1. Vowels, consonants, and diphthongs (see appendix).
2. Substitutions (see appendix).
3. Drills to overcome the tendency to pronounce the final vowel.
4. Words of different spelling and meaning often pronounced the same by foreigners, *e.g.* *sit* — *seat*, *bed* — *bad*, *full* — *fool*.

B. Recognition of new words (reading and spelling).

1. Simple family groupings involving short vowel sounds, *e.g. an, and, am, at, in, it.*
2. Complex family groupings, *e.g. ew, ow, ould, ance, ook, alk.*
3. The effect of the ending on the basic vowel of a word, *e.g. mad — made, at — ate, rid — ride.*
4. Words of different spelling but of the same sound, *e.g. ate — eight, to — too — two, right — write.*
5. Words containing the same sound made by a variety of letter combinations, *e.g. me, see, weak, machine, priest.*
6. Dropping the final *e* when *ing* is added, *e.g. make — making, smoke — smoking, state — stating.*

V. Penmanship

A. Alphabet (illiterates).

B. Items of personal identification (illiterates).

VI. Copying and dictation*Copying*

A. Alphabet (illiterates).

B. Points of identification — name, address, etc.

C. Copying of themes or lessons from the board.

Dictation

Sentences and paragraphs containing punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and structure difficulties for students.

VII. Spelling

A. Words selected from the written work of the students.

B. Words selected from the Thorndike Word Book.

VIII. Structure drill

- A. Nouns — gender, number, case.
- B. Pronouns.
 - 1. Personal — gender, number, person, case.
 - 2. Demonstrative.
 - 3. Indefinite.
 - 4. Interrogative.
 - 5. Relative — case.
- C. Substituting pronouns for nouns.
- D. Verbs.
 - 1. Number and person.
 - 2. Tense.
 - 3. Changing from active to passive voice.
 - 4. Changing from simple to progressive form.
 - 5. Auxiliary verbs.
- E. Drills in the use of prepositions.
- F. Drills in the use of conjunctions.
- G. Adjectives and adverbs — comparisons.
- H. Common idiomatic expressions.
- I. Completing elliptical sentences.
- J. Drills in word recognition.
- K. Grouping words as to meanings.
- L. Grouping words useful in description.
- M. Changing direct to indirect discourse.
- N. Exercises in word order.

IX. Composition

- A. Identification — name, address, age, etc.
- B. Filling blank spaces to test the vocabulary taught, *e.g.*
 - “I — to the door.”
 - “ — go to the door.”
 - “I go to the —.”
- C. Theme or lesson.
 - 1. Copying from text or board.

2. Writing from dictation.

3. Writing from memory.

D. Answering questions concerning the theme or reading exercise.

E. Writing short sentences using words suggested by the teacher, such words to be selected from some topic read or discussed in the class.

F. Paraphrasing a reading lesson.

G. Filling in blanks — checks, money orders, receipts, application for library cards, declaration of intention, etc.

H. Copying correct letter forms.

I. Writing simple letters after the correct form is learned.

J. Writing letters in answer to advertisements, letters of inquiry, complaint, ordering goods, etc.

K. Addressing envelopes.

L. Personal letters.

M. Written work incidental to structure drill.

X. Memorization work

Proverbs and maxims are found in all languages and are used for purposes of illustration, variety, and force. Where English idioms and desirable words can be emphasized by the memorization of a proverb or maxim, the work in English will be greatly stimulated and aided. The students, from the very beginning, should be encouraged to use these proverbs or maxims in their conversation and later in their written work.

XI. Hygiene

A. Parts of the body.

B. Clothing.

1. Adapting the material to the season or climate.

2. Clothing for babies and children.

3. The care of clothing.

C. Food.

1. Names of foods — animal and vegetable.
2. Diet.
3. Adapting the food to the season or climate.
4. Food for babies, growing children, and invalids.
5. Care of food.

D. Health and sickness.

1. Cleanliness of person and home.
2. Vaccination.
3. Quarantine.
4. Hospitals and clinics.

E. Care of the teeth.**F. Tonsils and adenoids.****XII. Geography****A. Directions — north, south, east, west.****B. Streets of the city.****C. Geographical divisions of the city.****D. Locations of public buildings, parks, and playgrounds.****E. Car service and transportation.****F. Locations of the chief industries of the community.****G. Nearby towns, cities, and resorts.****H. State and national capitals.****XIII. History****A. Columbus — the spirit of inquiry and search.****B. Washington — his loyalty, service, and self-sacrifice.****C. Franklin — his contributions and maxims.****D. Kosciusko and Lafayette — seekers of liberty.****E. Lincoln — struggles for success; the great emancipator.****F. Roosevelt — square deal policy, and attitude toward immigration.**

- G. Wilson — his idealism.
- H. The president in office.
- I. The American flag — story of its origin and changes.
- J. The National holidays.
- K. Comparison of the first with the present-day immigrants.
 - 1. Nationalities.
 - 2. Motives.
 - 3. Where they landed.
 - 4. Mode of living.
 - 5. Earning a living.
 - 6. Education.
 - 7. Prejudices — governmental and religious.

XIV. Civics and citizenship

- A. The city.
 - 1. Ordinances regarding spitting, licenses to sell, marry, etc.
 - 2. Protection of health — hospitals, clinics, and quarantine.
 - 3. Water supply.
 - 4. Police protection.
 - 5. Fire protection.
 - 6. Educational facilities.
 - 7. Streets.
 - 8. Lighting.
 - 9. Disposal of rubbish and garbage.
 - 10. Parks and playgrounds.
 - 11. Libraries.
 - 12. Legal aid.
 - a. Necessity for pure food and drugs (where and how to make complaints).
 - b. Correct weights and measures (where and how to make complaints).

c. Housing and tenement laws — How the city protects the tenant (where and how to make complaints).

d. Free legal aid (where obtained).

B. The state.

1. Free employment bureau.

2. Institutions for the insane, mental defectives, etc.

3. Educational facilities.

4. Roads.

5. Licenses.

C. The nation.

1. Money system.

2. Postal system.

3. Postal savings.

4. Regulation of immigration.

5. School aid.

6. Distribution of land.

D. Why laws are necessary.

E. The advantages of being a citizen of the United States.

F. The duties and obligations of citizenship.

G. Names of the present mayor of the city, governor of the state, and president of the United States.

H. Patriotic topics.

1. Respect for the flag.

2. Salute to the flag.

3. Patriotic songs and exercises.

XV. Arithmetic

A. Telling time, and the number of days in each month.

B. Numbers — including dozen, score, gross.

C. United States money.

D. Making change (dramatize buying and selling).

E. Scales and measures — long, dry, liquid, avoirdupois, time.

F. Economy in buying, *e.g.* 13¢ — 2 for 25¢, 5¢ — 6 for 25¢, 20¢ — 6 for \$1.

G. Calculating wages, *e.g.* 20 garments at 15¢ per garment, 45 hours of work at 40¢ per hour, etc., depending upon the needs of the students.

H. Household expenses and elementary presentation of the budget.

I. Saving money.

1. Bank account — deposits, withdrawals, checks.

2. Postal savings.

J. Business forms — bills, receipts, notes.

K. Money orders.

L. Fractions — $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$.

III. INTERMEDIATE COURSE (SECOND YEAR)

I. Oral English (informal)

II. Oral English (formal)

III. Reading

IV. Phonics

V. Penmanship

VI. Copying and dictation

VII. Spelling

VIII. Structure drill

IX. Composition

X. Memorization work

XI. Hygiene

XII. Geography

XIII. History

XIV. Civics and citizenship

XV. Arithmetic

I. Oral English (informal)

A. Review beginners' topics on actual situations that confront the foreigner.

- B.* The employer and the employee.
- C.* Labor unions.
- D.* Fire prevention and fire insurance.
- E.* Life insurance.
- F.* Industrial situations.
- G.* Naturalization.
- H.* Current events.

II. Oral English (formal)

- A.* Industry.
 - 1. Industries of the local community.
 - 2. Tools and machinery.
 - 3. Trades and professions, skilled and unskilled labor.
 - 4. Traits necessary for success in industry.
 - 5. Improvement in service.
 - 6. Review industrial situations of the beginners' course.
- B.* Enjoyment of leisure.
 - 1. Libraries.
 - 2. Museums.
 - 3. Parks and playgrounds.
 - 4. Concerts and the theater.
 - 5. Beaches and resorts.
- C.* Good manners and general etiquette.
- D.* Education.
 - 1. Opportunities for children.
 - 2. Opportunities for adults.
 - 3. Vocational guidance.
- E.* Newspapers.
 - 1. Advertisements.
 - 2. Current events.
 - 3. Editorials.
- F.* Hygiene (see under separate heading).

- G. Geography (see under separate heading).
- H. History (see under separate heading).
- I. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).
- J. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

III. Reading

- A. English texts.
- B. Supplementary readings in history, geography, hygiene, and civics (reading in these subjects is to be confined to the time allotted to them on the program).
- C. Newspapers.
 - 1. Advertisements.
 - 2. Current events.
 - 3. Editorials (only those which are of interest to the students and within the scope of their vocabularies).
- D. Excerpts from literary works.

IV. Phonics

- A. Correction of students' errors.
- B. Review of necessary phonograms.

V. Penmanship

Legibility is the only requisite.

VI. Copying and dictation

Copying

Material of special value to the students may be copied in their notebooks.

Dictation

Sentences and paragraphs presenting difficulties for pupils; also personal and business letters for the purpose of securing correct form.

VII. Spelling

- A. Words taken from the written work of the students.

B. Words taken from the Ayres or Buckingham Spelling Scales and the Thorndike Word Book that may be valuable additions to the students' writing vocabularies.

VIII. Structure drill

- A.* Nouns, pronouns, and verbs (number).
- B.* Nouns and pronouns (gender).
- C.* Nouns and pronouns (case).
- D.* Pronouns — personal, interrogative, indefinite, demonstrative, and relative.
- E.* Tenses of verbs.
- F.* Progressive forms of the verb.
- G.* Auxiliary verbs.
- H.* Negatives with verbs.
- I.* The interrogative sentence.
- J.* Prepositions.
- K.* Conjunctions.
- L.* Adjectives and adverbs (comparison and correct usage).
- M.* Abbreviations.
- N.* Contractions.
- O.* Capitalization and punctuation.
- P.* Word order.

IX. Composition

- A.* Elliptical sentences.
- B.* Dictation.
- C.* Reproduction of reading lesson.
- D.* Filling out forms — deposit slips, checks, money orders, application for library cards, telegrams, naturalization forms, etc.
- E.* Original compositions.
- F.* Letters.
- G.* Written work incidental to structure drill.

X. Memorization work

- A.* Sayings, maxims, and proverbs.
- B.* Extracts from speeches.
- C.* Short poems.
- D.* Songs — patriotic, folk, and popular.

XI. Hygiene

- A.* Personal cleanliness.
- B.* Home sanitation.
- C.* Care of health.
- D.* Vaccination.
- E.* Quarantine.
- F.* Care of the eyes.
- G.* Infection and sterilization.
- H.* Hospitals and clinics.
- I.* Food and housing laws.
- J.* The care of the teeth.
- K.* Tonsils and adenoids.
- L.* Relationship of good health to industrial efficiency, happiness of self and family, and good citizenship.

XII. Geography

A. Elementary discussion of the following as they affect living conditions and industries :

- 1. Temperature.
- 2. Moisture.
- 3. Soil and rock.
- 4. Atmosphere.
- 5. Animal life.
- 6. Geographical barriers.

B. Elementary discussion of the principal industries, dependent upon the vocations of the students.

- 1. Manufacturing.
- 2. Agriculture.

3. Mining.
4. Transportation.
5. Building trades.
6. Commerce.

C. The need for and application of these industries to the local community.

D. The need for and application of these industries to the state.

E. The need for and application of these industries to the nation.

F. The study of the geographical high lights of the students' state.

1. Transportation.
2. Temperature and weather conditions.
3. Chief geographical elements — rivers, cities, and mountains.
4. Principal historic interests in the state.
5. Opportunities for work in the various sections of the state.
6. Educational and social possibilities for the family in the various sections of the state.

XIII. History

A. Early American homes and community life (contrast the first immigrants with those of the present day — see beginners' course).

B. The first English settlers.

C. The first immigrants who came to the particular community in which the students live.

D. The causes of the Revolution.

E. The Declaration of Independence.

F. The Constitution.

G. The growth of the United States — expansion.

H. The slavery question.

- I.* The Civil War.
- J.* The great immigration movement since 1880.
- K.* The industrial development of the United States.
- L.* The advantages of the immigrants of today over those of fifty years ago.

XIV. Civics and citizenship

- A.* The privileges the immigrant receives and the duties he owes.
- B.* Why laws are necessary.
- C.* How city laws are made.
- D.* How city laws are enforced.
- E.* How city laws are interpreted.
- F.* City departments — personnel and functions.
- G.* How state laws are made.
- H.* How state laws are enforced.
- I.* How state laws are interpreted.
- J.* How United States laws are made.
- K.* How United States laws are enforced.
- L.* How United States laws are interpreted.
- M.* Why and how aliens become citizens.
- N.* Mock trials, mock elections, student activities, clubs, and specimen ballots that may give in concrete form certain governmental procedures.
- O.* Salute to the flag and patriotic songs.

XV. Arithmetic

- A.* Scales and measures (see beginners' course).
- B.* Household expenses and budget (see beginners' course).
- C.* Calculating wages (see beginners' course).
- D.* Fractions (see beginners' course).
- E.* Business forms and saving money.
 - i.* Deposits, withdrawals, and checks.

2. Bills, receipts, and notes.
3. Money orders and postal savings.
- F. Decimals.
- G. Percentage.
- H. Interest.
- I. Profit and loss.

IV. ADVANCED COURSE (THIRD YEAR)

- I. Oral English (informal and formal)
- II. Reading
- III. Phonics
- IV. Penmanship
- V. Copying and dictation
- VI. Spelling
- VII. Structure drill
- VIII. Composition
- IX. Memorization
- X. Hygiene
- XI. Geography
- XII. History
- XIII. Civics and citizenship
- XIV. Arithmetic

I. Oral English (informal and formal)

- A. Personal experiences.
- B. Relating the experiences of others.
- C. Telling anecdotes, folk tales, and humorous stories.
- D. Explanations of processes, *e.g.* making cigars, buttonhole making.
- E. Developing topic sentences.
- F. Suggesting titles to paragraphs and stories.
- G. Conversation based on pictures, cartoons, and advertisements.

H. Short speeches to convince the class, *e.g.* the value of having a bank account.

I. Current events.

J. Debates.

K. Mock trials and hearings.

L. Meetings in connection with clubs and student government.

M. Hygiene (see under separate heading).

N. Geography (see under separate heading).

O. History (see under separate heading).

P. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).

Q. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

II. Reading

A. Newspapers.

B. Magazines.

C. English texts.

D. Supplementary readings in history, geography, hygiene, and civics.

E. Excerpts from literary works.

III. Phonics

A. Correction of students' errors.

B. Review of necessary phonograms.

IV. Penmanship

Legibility is the only requisite.

V. Copying and dictation

Copying

Material of special value to the students may be copied in their notebooks.

Dictation

A. Sentences and paragraphs testing for spelling, punc-

tuation, capitalization, and structural form on which there has been previous drill.

B. Letter forms.

VI. Spelling

A. Words taken from the written work of the students.

B. Words selected from the Ayres and Buckingham Spelling Scales, or from the Thorndike Word Book that may be valuable additions to the students' writing vocabularies.

VII. Structure drill

A. Prefixes and suffixes.

B. Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.

C. Dictionary work.

D. Varying expressions found in reading.

E. Changing words to phrases and vice versa.

F. Word transposition.

G. Changing direct to indirect discourse and vice versa.

H. Changing the singular to the plural and vice versa.

I. Tense variations.

J. Irregular verbs.

K. Adjectives and adverbs (comparison and correct usage).

L. Prepositions (correct usage).

M. Punctuation and capitalization.

VIII. Composition

A. Letter writing.

B. Outlines and compositions.

C. Written work incidental to structure drill.

IX. Memorization work

A. Sayings, proverbs, and maxims.

B. Extracts from speeches.

- C.* Short poems.
- D.* Songs — patriotic, folk, and popular.

X. Hygiene

- A.* Care of the eyes.
- B.* Care of the ears.
- C.* Food and diet.
- D.* Hygiene of digestion.
- E.* Hygiene of the nervous system.
- F.* Hygiene of the circulatory system.
- G.* Relation of clothing to health.
- H.* The value of cleanliness.
- I.* Disease germs.
- J.* Sterilization, vaccination, and quarantine.
- K.* Care of the teeth.
- L.* First aid.

XI. Geography

- A.* Industry.
 - 1. Inventions and improvements.
 - 2. Inventions made by immigrants.
 - 3. Development from hand to power machinery.
 - 4. The sweat shop.
 - 5. The factory system.
- B.* Agriculture.
 - 1. Relation to other industries.
 - 2. Machinery and equipment.
 - 3. Markets.
 - 4. Opportunities — social, economic, and educational.
- C.* The worker.
 - 1. The influence of immigration.
 - 2. Women in industry.
 - 3. Child labor.
 - 4. Factory laws.

- D.* Capital and labor.
- E.* Labor unions.
- F.* Labor and political parties.
- G.* The important geographical elements of the United States.

1. Cities — Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, Detroit, Cleveland, St. Louis, Chicago, New Orleans, Denver, Los Angeles, San Francisco, the capital of the state, and important neighboring cities — together with the general location and reasons for the importance of each city.
2. Mountains — Appalachian and Rocky.
3. Rivers — Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Colorado, Columbia, state and local rivers — taught from the point of view of the usefulness of these rivers to the nation.
4. Our neighbors and boundaries.
5. The distribution of industries (dependent on the location of the students).
6. The advantages and disadvantages of making residence in the various sections of the country, depending on the occupations and interests of the students.

XII. History

- A.* Columbus.
- B.* Great representative explorers — English, French, Spanish, Dutch.
- C.* Settlements — the most important one of each nation.
- D.* Why English is the language of the United States.
- E.* The American Revolution — causes, struggles, and leaders.

- F.* The Declaration of Independence.
- G.* Constitution.
- H.* The early expansion of the United States.
- I.* The Civil War — slavery and Lincoln.
- J.* The expansion of the United States since the Civil War.
- K.* The World War.
- L.* Inventions and discoveries.
- M.* Modern problems — political parties, immigration, foreign relations.
- N.* Current events.

XIII. Civics and citizenship

- A.* All important facts and procedures of naturalization.
- B.* Government in the United States.
 - 1. National.
 - 2. State.
 - 3. County.
 - 4. City.
 - 5. Town.
- C.* Legislative, executive, and judicial departments of the government.
- D.* History and elements of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.
- E.* What the national government does for its citizens and their reciprocal duties.
- F.* What the state government does for its citizens and their reciprocal duties.
- G.* What the county government does for its citizens and their reciprocal duties.
- H.* What the city government does for its citizens and their reciprocal duties.
- I.* What the town government does for its citizens and their reciprocal duties.

- J.* Political parties.
- K.* Elections and ballot system.
- L.* Initiative, referendum, and recall.

XIV. Arithmetic

- A.* Review fractions.
- B.* Review decimals.
- C.* Review percentage.
- D.* Business arithmetic.
 - 1. Interest.
 - 2. Profit and loss.
 - 3. Commission.
 - 4. Discount.
 - 5. Taxes.
 - 6. Business forms (see intermediate course).
- E.* Investments.
 - 1. Banks.
 - 2. Postal savings system.
 - 3. Building and loan associations.
 - 4. Loans.
 - 5. Stocks and bonds.
 - 6. Mortgages and real estate investments.
- F.* Business ethics.
 - 1. The value of politeness and courtesy.
 - 2. The value of a square deal to employer, employee, and customer.
 - 3. Honesty with regard to goods, money, and service.

V. VOCATIONAL AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

The importance of such activities. The two objectives usually considered as most important in immigrant education are (1) the teaching of English to

foreigners and (2) the preparation of these people for participation in citizenship. Even when we have kept these aims in mind constantly, selected the subject matter on the basis of satisfying the present and urgent needs of the students, and utilized the best methods of presentation possible, we have no sufficient guarantee that we have been successful either in adjusting the foreigner to his new surroundings or in aiding him to become a good citizen in his relationship to his community.

As vital as these two objectives are, certain other immediate considerations should not be overlooked or underestimated; namely, the importance of breaking down racial barriers and prejudices, the need of creating the maximum interest in the school in the face of the many difficulties involved, and the significance of keeping in constant touch with the community and aiding its members in every possible manner.

To the large group of foreigners who are, perhaps, disinterested in the acquisition of a knowledge of English as such and who are too fatigued to concentrate sufficiently in ordinary procedures of classroom work, appeal may be made through some form of vocational, social, or recreational work. These subjects are never without influence on English and may be used as a medium for such instruction. Usually, however, it is possible, where numbers are sufficiently large, to include in the two hours of evening school a period of English and some other form of activity, depending largely upon the immediate interests of the students.

Vocational activities. The following vocational

courses have been given successfully in large centers of foreign population :

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Dressmaking | 7. Garment designing |
| 2. Embroidery | 8. Flower making |
| 3. Millinery | 9. Sign painting |
| 4. Cooking | 10. Elementary business practice |
| 5. Joinery | 11. Carpentry |
| 6. Tailoring | 12. House painting and plastering |

Social and recreational activities. The breaking down of racial animosities and prejudices and the creation of community interest in the work of the school can best be accomplished by recreational and social activities. Among the most successful types of this work are the following activities :

1. Debates
2. Open forum
3. Entertainments
 - a. Dramatics
 - b. Music
 - c. Aesthetic and folk dancing
 - d. Talks on citizenship, and topics of general interest to the students
 - e. Stereopticon lectures
 - f. Motion pictures
4. School dances
5. School excursions
 - a. Visits to the night courts
 - b. Visits to historical and industrial places of interest
 - c. Visits to museums, libraries, zoölogical gardens, etc.
6. Student participation in school government

The advisory functions of the school. The school is in a position to perform a splendid piece of work in an advisory capacity. During the period of adjustment, when the foreigner is confronted with innumerable perplexities, industrial, legal, or civic, the school should lend its aid in setting the foreigner on the right path by giving him the advice and help he needs. In this matter, the coöperation of other community agencies is desirable and readily obtained.¹ Work of this type prevents exploitation, shows a desire on the part of the Americans to help the foreigner, and is, therefore, of inestimable value in the work of Americanization.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Prepare a detailed syllabus for beginners. Justify your selection of subject matter and the sequence of materials.

2. Fifty per cent of the enrolled pupils in a given school fail to attend after a period of three months. How would this affect the selection of subject matter?

3. To what extent may correlation be secured among the various subjects?

4. Justify or refute the inclusion of courses in arithmetic and geography as part of the evening school curriculum.

5. Assume that a group of factories in your community is willing to permit their employees to study English in the factories. Arrange a scheme for proper correlation between the regular school work for adult immigrants and the needs of the foreigners as indicated by the type of industries.

6. What activities aside from those of the classroom may be incorporated in evening school work?

¹ For detailed reference as to the agencies that can aid in Americanization, see Chapter III.

7. What are the purposes of a program of socialization and how are these purposes attained?

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CHAPTER IX

METHOD AND CONTENT OF THE COURSES

I. ENGLISH

Individual and social value of the subject. The foreigner, if he is to make any progress at all in the direction of assimilation, must know the English language. Doubtless there are many foreign-born in America who possess all the qualities essential to good citizenship and yet know little or nothing concerning the language of the country in which they live. Aliens who are lacking in ability to speak, read, and write our language are usually shut up in a foreign section comprised of individuals whom they understand and who understand them. Their vernacular satisfies all their needs. They are, however, incapable of feeling the pulse of American life beyond the confines of the limited world in which they are forced to dwell.

A knowledge of the English language would prevent the foreigner from being so often and so easily imposed upon, not infrequently by his better educated but less scrupulous countryman. Such a knowledge would also make him better able to adjust himself to his work in the factory or mill and serve as a stepping-stone to advancement in position and salary. A reduction in the number of accidents is always a concomitant with

a complete understanding of the language of the shop. The employee who understands safety signs and who can react instantly to warning cries may save himself many days of pain, to say nothing of the loss of earning power. Showing the foreigner that a knowledge of English pays is a means of holding him in the classroom, provided the instruction is of immediate applicability.

Aside from its value to the individual, a knowledge of English enables the newcomer to participate in the social life of the community and in the civic duties of his adopted country. It permits the immigrant to understand customs and ideals to a degree that is impossible without a command of the language. It further enables the foreign-born to make his contribution to American life, not an unimportant consideration, as can readily be ascertained by a review of the history of our country. While all immigrants are not equally fortunate in attaining a place of importance, yet each has the opportunity to make a contribution.

The foreigner owes it to the country he has chosen as his home to adjust himself as far as possible to its manners and customs, standards and institutions. The primary approach to this is through the learning of English.

Subject matter of instruction should fit the needs of the students. The objectives in learning a language should be based upon a clear understanding of the needs of the foreigner and should be grouped under two headings: (1) to understand others and (2) to be understood by others. The first includes a knowledge

of English symbols, both spoken and written; the second implies the ability to communicate thoughts in terms of the English language. The best results are obtained when the subject matter of instruction fits the interests of the students. Initially they should be taught the language of the street and of the shop, and the teacher should place the emphasis on such everyday phrases as will serve to develop the ability to converse in simple English. The futility of attempting to teach the language without considering the utilitarian value of the contents has been generally recognized, although the scientific selection of the words most needed by immigrants during the period of their adjustment has not yet been made. Some we know, it is true, but we cannot point to a selected vocabulary and say, "These are the words that the largest number of immigrants need most in securing an independent use of the language." That we have progressed considerably toward the ultimate goal may be gleaned from a comparison of the subject matter of any recent text for adult immigrants with the following quotation recording the type of lesson for vocabulary building that was common only a few years past, "I am a little yellow birdie. I can fly. I can sing. Shall I twitter to you?"

II. ORAL ENGLISH

General considerations. The Gouin method is well designed for introducing English to the foreigner. Regardless of the particular method employed, all devices introduced should broaden the opportunity

for speaking. The teacher should not occupy the center of the stage but should do as little talking as possible. His greatest problem is to limit the amount of his own conversation and encourage the students to speak.

Beginning students will need much encouragement. Their hesitating speech should be helped along with a word, a suggestion, or a question. While proper pronunciation and idiomatic expressions should be emphasized from the start, they should not be sought by the injection of constant adverse criticism. The primary task of the teacher is to get the students to talk freely. Anything that may increase the natural diffidence of the students and discourage them from further efforts should be avoided.

All subjects for conversation, to be effective, should be on topics of interest to the students. This point cannot be too strongly emphasized. The wise teacher will determine the content of his lessons from a study of the needs of his students, their home and social life, and their working conditions. There are many topics which are of such a general nature that they are of use to all foreigners learning English, such as purchasing food or clothing, asking one's way, greeting a friend. Other topics are of a specialized nature, applicable to the needs of one or a few individuals in a class. These topics usually pertain to the occupations of the students, such as how to sweep the floor, how to make a cigar. Such vocabulary needs should be satisfied whenever possible, dependent upon the number of students in the class and the diversity of their interests.

Dramatization is an effective means of encouraging conversation. This method may be introduced through the medium of a reading lesson devised for two persons. The lesson should first be read by the teacher and one of the brightest students, then by two students. The other members of the class should also take part in the dramatization. Inasmuch as the aim of such lessons is the acquisition of ability to speak, the lesson sheets or books should not be used after the first few readings. The students participating in the dramatization should be encouraged to introduce new expressions, either of their own making, or from suggestive expressions placed on the board for the purpose. Subsequent lessons in conversation may be introduced more directly as the students become accustomed to the procedure. It should be remembered that this type of dramatization is not possible until the students have acquired sufficient command of English to express the thoughts involved. Emphasis should be placed on participation by many rather than by a few.

Content in oral English. It is in the conversational work particularly that the teacher should be an opportunist and seize upon every situation, regardless of the subject, that will lead to discussion.

For beginners and intermediates the course has been divided into formal and informal oral work, because the latter, dealing with the more practical situations that will probably confront the foreigner, necessitates the use of idiomatic English.

Oral English for beginners (informal)

A. Buying for the home.

- B.* Buying apparel.
- C.* Renting a house or flat.
- D.* Asking one's way.
- E.* Telling time.
- F.* Personal introduction.
- G.* Work — application for a job, raise, day off, etc.
- H.* Expressions concerning the weather.
- I.* Complaints — store, gas, milkman, etc.
- J.* Travel — buying tickets, checking baggage, etc.
- K.* Going to the doctor, dentist, hospital, and clinic.
- L.* Banking — opening an account, depositing and withdrawing money.
- M.* Facts pertaining to personal history.
- N.* Ordering a meal.
- O.* Greeting a friend.
- P.* Entering a child in school.

Oral English for intermediates (informal)

- A.* Review beginners' topics on actual situations that confront the foreigner.
- B.* The employer and the employee.
- C.* Labor unions.
- D.* Fire prevention and fire insurance.
- E.* Life insurance.
- F.* Industrial situations.
- G.* Naturalization.
- H.* Current events.

Oral English for beginners (formal)

- A.* Identification — name, address, age, occupation, country of birth, length of time in the United States, married or single, names of children and wife, boarder or householder, schooling, employer's name and address.
- B.* Immediate environment — home, school, factory, or

place of employment, street and neighborhood, cars, stores, and churches.

C. Vocational.

1. Occupations.
2. Industrial signs — Keep Out, Danger, Look Out, Entrance, Employment Office, etc.
3. Employees' situations — applying for a position, a day off, excuse for absence, asking for a raise.

D. Relations between the home and family.

1. Parts of the house.
2. Names of the rooms.
3. Furniture.
4. Utensils.
5. Members of the family and their occupations.
6. Family scenes.

E. Weather, temperature, and time.

1. Common expressions.
2. Divisions of time.
3. Days, weeks, months, year, and seasons.

F. Hygiene (see under separate heading).

G. Geography (see under separate heading).

H. History (see under separate heading).

I. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).

J. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

Oral English for intermediates (formal)

A. Industry.

1. Industries of the local community.
2. Tools and machinery.
3. Trades and professions, skilled and unskilled labor.
4. Traits necessary for success in industry.
5. Improvement in service.
6. Review industrial situations of the beginners' course.

- B. Enjoyment of leisure.
 - 1. Libraries.
 - 2. Museums.
 - 3. Parks and playgrounds.
 - 4. Concerts and the theater.
 - 5. Beaches and resorts.
- C. Good manners and general etiquette.
- D. Education.
 - 1. Opportunities for children.
 - 2. Opportunities for adults.
 - 3. Vocational guidance.
- E. Newspapers.
 - 1. Advertisements.
 - 2. Current events.
 - 3. Editorials.
- F. Hygiene (see under separate heading).
- G. Geography (see under separate heading).
- H. History (see under separate heading).
- I. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).
- J. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

Oral English for advanced classes (informal and formal)

- A. Personal experiences.
- B. Relating the experiences of others.
- C. Telling anecdotes, folk tales, and humorous stories.
- D. Explanations of processes, *e.g.* making cigars, button holes.
- E. Developing topic sentences.
- F. Suggesting titles to paragraphs and stories.
- G. Conversation based on pictures, cartoons, and advertisements.
- H. Short speeches to convince the class, *e.g.* the value of having a bank account.

- I. Current events.
- J. Debates.
- K. Mock trials and hearings.
- L. Meetings in connection with clubs and student government.
- M. Hygiene (see under separate heading).
- N. Geography (see under separate heading).
- O. History (see under separate heading).
- P. Civics and citizenship (see under separate heading).
- Q. Arithmetic (see under separate heading).

III. READING

General considerations. Parker has very clearly expressed the difficulties encountered in teaching reading. He says, "Reading is a process involving carefully controlled thinking instead of mere passive perusal of a page. Many foreigners can read English well, but without understanding. Anyone who has studied a foreign language can readily understand the possibility of this. It is a poor student, indeed, who cannot read with a fair degree of fluency from a foreign text. Comprehension of the text may be entirely lacking, however."¹ It is just such ability to read fluently that often leads the teacher of immigrants into feeling that progress is being made. Progress it may be, but of a type that is without value to the student.

It is readily apparent that for the immigrant, as well as for the average person, silent reading has the greater value by far. It will be only upon exceptional occasions that a student will have use for reading aloud

¹ SAMUEL C. PARKER — *Types of Elementary Teaching*; Ginn & Company, 1923. Also, *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 22, Nos. 1, 2, 3; September, October, and November, 1921.

outside the classroom. Consequently, the work in the classroom should emphasize silent reading. Psychologically, the ability to read silently is more easily acquired than is the ability to read orally. In both types it is essential that the thought of the printed page be grasped by the reader. In oral reading there is the additional factor of giving expression to the words. Not only must the words be pronounced, they must also be enunciated in such a manner as to be understood by the hearer.

The best results may be obtained from a reading lesson, whether silent or oral, by testing the comprehension of the students by means of a series of relevant, pertinent questions. This form of testing comprehension necessitates the ability on the part of the students to understand the meaning of questions; hence, it cannot be undertaken until the various words and forms of expression as used in interrogations have been taught.

The silent reading lesson. The textbook should not be introduced into the beginners' class until the students have demonstrated their ability to understand a few words in English. Such an arrangement will enable the teacher to assure himself that the class is properly graded, permit him to emphasize the conversational phase of the work, and insure an understanding of a few English phrases by the students. Even after the introduction of the text it is advisable to correlate closely the conversational work with the reading lessons. Understanding of the vocabulary of the reading lesson is more complete if it has been previously taught in the conversation lesson.

In selecting the subject matter for reading lessons, care should be exercised that the content approximates the realities of the students' everyday experiences. Considerable stress should be placed upon the utilitarian value of the lessons presented. It is also incumbent upon the teacher to arrange the sequence of lessons to fit the rate of development of the students. The vocabulary should not present too many difficulties, and the arrangement of sentences should be such as to reduce to a minimum the mechanics of reading. This applies especially to foreigners illiterate in their own language. They have never read before, and the mechanics of reading alone present considerable difficulty, even when the grading and arrangement of words and sentences are carefully planned. Holding the book, moving the eye from word to word and from the end of one line to the beginning of the next, present difficulties that are to be overcome.

As the students become more accustomed to the mechanics of reading and show progress in their command of the new vocabulary, the rate of advancement will naturally increase. In the intermediate and advanced classes the content of the reading becomes more and more varied. It includes not only topics approximating the realities of daily experiences but also embraces civics, history, geography, and citizenship.

Types of lessons. As suggested previously, the early lessons with beginners' classes should be closely correlated with the conversational work. All language development has been the interpretation of ideas, actions, and experiences by means of sounds and sym-

bols. Hence it is but natural that the classroom work should follow along the same lines.

1. In presenting a reading lesson based on a theme, the actions suggested in the text are performed by both teacher and students. The interpretation accompanies the performance of these actions, the teacher and students taking part. The written symbols, as representative of both the sounds and the actions, are then placed on the blackboard. Each series of actions that constitutes the lesson is performed, stated, and written. When the theme has been completed, it is read in its entirety from the board. Reference is then made to the book with reasonable assurance that the students will comprehend the printed symbols on the page. Students should be called upon to answer questions concerning the reading. This procedure may be varied by having the students complete elliptical sentences based on the lesson.

Considerable difficulty is experienced at times in getting illiterate students to think in terms of English. Their responses and reactions will be so slow that it is apparent that they are translating into their own tongue in order to comprehend. Such a practice may be overcome by employing sight reading cards containing words or sentences that can be readily acted. The teacher holds up one of the cards and indicates which student is to perform the action. The card may be handed to a student who is expected to carry out the performance as rapidly as possible and without oral reproduction, *e.g. stand, sit, open the window, open your books.*

2. The new and difficult words of the reading lesson are placed on the blackboard. All the words thus selected are explained and illustrated by using them in simple sentences. The students are called upon to furnish additional sentences illustrating the meanings. When understanding of the new words is assured, the text is referred to and the story read silently. After the reading several students may be called upon to paraphrase the lesson.

3. The reading lesson may be introduced through a discussion of a picture, advertisement, or cartoon relating to the subject. This will serve as a means of presenting the new words and phrases that appear in the lesson. Such words and phrases should be placed on the blackboard and their meanings made clear. Following the reading of the lesson, the teacher may test the pupils for comprehension by means of a series of questions that will unfold the story, or by paraphrasing.

4. The topic of the lesson may be developed by a general class discussion. The teacher should take an active part in the discussion only when necessary. His function is to start the discussion, and then sustain it by means of a leading question when the interest seems to lessen. The teacher should, at times, read the lesson to the students. They are thus able to center their interest and attention on the contents and the pronunciation. This is followed by silent reading. Dramatization, when the subject is adapted to the purpose, often serves as a desirable method of insuring comprehension.

Suggested procedure in silent reading for intermediate and advanced classes

General

1. The teacher reads the subject matter, dividing each chapter or lesson into important subdivisions or units. These should be on the major thoughts involved rather than on sentences or paragraphs. This will incidently aid him in the development of outlines for oral and written composition and aid the student in the acquisition of paragraph sense.

2. The teacher outlines definite questions on the subject matter that will test the comprehension of the students and invite discussion.

3. The teacher formulates lists of words to be added to the students' vocabularies.

4. The teacher correlates reading with other subjects whenever possible.

Specific

1. The teacher introduces a new book, story, or lesson by developing geographical, historical, social, or other backgrounds that may give to the students the proper setting and help them in understanding that which is to follow. This should be done by drawing from the knowledge and experience of the students.

2. The teacher suggests the major thoughts to be gained from the lesson.

3. All new words, idiomatic expressions, and grammatical constructions are made clear to the class.

4. The teacher assigns to the class the first important unit of lesson to be read silently.

5. Each student's difficulties, as they arise during the silent reading lesson, are explained individually so as to avoid interference with the work of the other students.

6. As individual instruction is given, the teacher makes notes of the prevalent difficulties for future reference.

7. The teacher requests the students to give an oral summary of the unit read and seeks by questions to test comprehension and encourage discussion of the important points involved. During this process he notes the errors made in pronunciation and grammatical construction.

8. Items 4 to 7 are repeated with the units that follow until the entire lesson has been read.

9. The teacher reads the entire lesson as a model of pronunciation and to give a better understanding of the context by dramatizing vocally and stressing the major thoughts involved. This helps to increase the reading interest.

10. The teacher summarizes the lesson, driving home the essential points.

11. The reading lesson is followed by a structure lesson in which the various prevalent errors made in the conversational part of the lesson are corrected.

a. Vocabulary building. The new words of the lesson originally selected by the teacher and words based on the questions raised by pupils during the silent reading are used.

b. Drills are conducted to correct all prevalent grammatical and structural errors made in the oral portion of the reading lesson.

12. A spelling lesson follows, including such words from the reading lesson as may be of greatest value to the students in their written work.

The oral reading lesson. Most students are anxious and willing to demonstrate their ability to read aloud. There will be an occasional student so overly confident that he will correct the pronunciations of

other students. The same person, when called upon, will probably read too rapidly and not know when to stop. At the other extreme is the shy, hesitant individual who reads in a tone that is almost inaudible. Such a student needs encouragement until he secures a little confidence in himself, and this may be accomplished by the use of concert reading.

Concert work is frowned upon in elementary day classes but serves a very useful purpose with adult immigrants. Those who oppose the use of concert recitations in the classroom claim that it only serves to strengthen the incorrect pronunciations that the teacher is endeavoring to eliminate, and that the shy and hesitant students take no part in such work. The first criticism has little value; the pronunciations would be incorrect in the beginning whether made in concert or individually. By means of the former procedure, the students are encouraged to make an effort toward taking part in the classroom work, with the result that they are making some progress. The second criticism, likewise, carries no weight as it is only by means of such group recitations that some of the students attain self-confidence. Further, it serves as a time-saving device, enabling the teacher in a very short period to discover the students needing assistance. During the concert reading the teacher should lay his book aside and note the students who are backward about participating and also those who are inclined to stumble over the passages. Those who are in need of assistance should be called upon most frequently.

Oral reading is of value as an aid to proper pronunciation, correct phrasing, and clear enunciation. The development of these abilities depends upon the educational background and mentality of the student. Reading materials should be selected with a view toward the particular phase of the work that is to be emphasized. Some lessons lend themselves readily to phrasing, others to pronunciation. A student, however, should not be interrupted in the midst of his reading in order that his pronunciation may be corrected. He should be permitted to complete his reading; then his faulty pronunciation may be pointed out and rectified.

Two dangers are inherent in the oral reading lesson, namely: (1) the expenditure of more than the allotted time for the lesson, and (2) the degeneration of the reading lesson into simple word-calling. The first danger may be guarded against by formulating a well-balanced time program and adhering to it. Don't permit the desires of the students to carry the reading lesson far beyond a reasonable time limit. To avoid their complaints that they haven't had an opportunity to read, make individual assignments very short so that the entire class can be covered in one or two lessons. Emphasis upon silent reading will gradually alienate them from their desire to read aloud every evening.

Word-calling is due largely to inability to grasp the content. This will result in a lack of interest, invariably followed by a decrease in attendance. It is the business of the teacher to keep the class interested.

Many devices should be introduced to vary the lesson. Inability to comprehend may be avoided by introducing the new words of the reading lesson in the conversational work or vocabulary drill which should precede the reading. If this procedure is followed, the reading will be both interesting and pleasurable. There will be an absence of the stumbling, meaningless, and useless word-calling that would otherwise exist.

The amount of oral reading employed in the classroom will decrease as the student progresses from the beginning class to more advanced work. Its greatest value lies in enabling the teacher to discover and correct mispronunciations and voice inflections. As skill along these lines increases, the need for oral reading diminishes.

With more advanced students oral reading should be used sparingly. There are three conditions justifying its use with advanced classes: (1) When an audience situation exists, *e.g.* when the subject matter of the lesson lends itself best to oral presentation, as in the case of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. (2) When a student is far behind the remainder of the class in ability to read orally. In such a case the teacher should call him to the desk during the silent reading lesson and have him read in a low tone. The necessary corrections should then be made. (3) When there is need for a model of proper pronunciation, enunciation, and voice inflection. When such an occasion arises, the teacher's reading should serve as a model.

Types of lesson. 1. Classes that are not very large and are somewhat advanced may be divided into groups of three or four persons each for oral reading. Each

student in the group reads to the others. This will enable everyone to read during the lesson. After such a procedure has become familiar it may be possible to include discussion of the reading in the group work, the teacher quietly aiding the groups.

2. Now and then an occasional student may be permitted to read the entire lesson to the class. The student selected for this purpose should be thoroughly prepared so that he can read clearly and well, in order that the reading may be both profitable and enjoyable to the class. Considerable ethical value may be attached to this procedure inasmuch as it serves to stimulate the students to equal or surpass the performance when they have an opportunity to read.

3. Where the reading matter may be so adapted, or is prepared specifically for such a purpose, two or more students may engage in the reading, each taking a definite part. Such lessons are of considerable value in furthering proper inflection and improving the conversational tone. This, likewise, has equal ethical value in encouraging those taking part to strive to equal the performance of the best readers.

Reading for beginners

A. Material developed on the board from the conversation and theme.

B. Signs, *e.g.*

1. Industrial — Danger, Office, Look Out, etc.
2. Theatrical — Box Office, Entrance, Exit, etc.
3. Railroad — Stop-Look-Listen, Do Not Cross the Tracks, etc.
4. Store — Count Your Change, Cashier, etc.

5. Bank — Receiving Teller, Paying Teller, etc.
6. Real Estate — To Let, For Rent, Apartment, etc.
- C. Reading from textbook.
- D. Newspapers (the latter part of the year)
 1. Help wanted ads.
 2. Store advertisements.
 3. Weather conditions.
 4. News items that are within the scope of the students' knowledge of English.

Reading for intermediates

- A. English texts.
- B. Supplementary readings in history, geography, hygiene, and civics (reading in these subjects to be confined to the time allotted to them on the program).
- C. Newspapers.
 1. Advertisements.
 2. Current events.
 3. Editorials (only those which are of interest to the students and within the scope of their vocabularies).
- D. Excerpts from literary works.

Reading for advanced classes

- A. Newspapers.
- B. Magazines.
- C. English texts.
- D. Supplementary readings in history, geography, hygiene, and civics.
- E. Excerpts from literary works.

IV. PHONICS

The value of the subject. There is a great diversity of opinion concerning the value of phonics as an aid in teaching English. There is little or no agreement as

to the extent to which phonics should be used or whether it should be employed in the classroom at all. As a result of this lack of agreement it is not to be wondered that the teachers are coming more and more to disregard it entirely. This is unfortunate because phonics has a distinct place in the evening school work.

The adverse criticisms of the use of phonics are two :

(1) The teachers who do make use of phonics tend to become slaves to the subject and spend a disproportionate amount of time on a phase of the problem that is only of secondary importance. (2) The phonic exercises are not properly adapted to the needs of the immigrant students. The teacher forgets that the habits of pronunciation that the foreigners have employed for years are too firmly fixed to permit of their eradication in the short time at his disposal. The failure to adapt the lessons to the needs of the students is further evidenced by the use in the classroom of a considerable amount of nonsense syllables. These should be omitted as they convey no meaning to the students and the time is too valuable to waste. Sufficient exercises can be devised with words that have meaning to obviate the need for nonsense syllables.

Phonic drills have three distinct values for foreigners :

1. To correct foreign accent and pronunciation.
2. To aid in recognition of new words.
3. To aid in teaching spelling by giving a knowledge of sounds.

The correction of foreign accent and pronunciation. The teacher should study his class, note the errors peculiar to the group, and confine drills to their

correction. The pronunciation of the students will be greatly improved if the teacher studies precisely how the vowels and consonants are formed, and is able to illustrate the proper placing of the lips and tongue in the correct sounding of the letters. He will need to overemphasize and exaggerate the placing of the mouth-parts in order to secure correct imitation. The progress of the students will be hastened if the teacher speaks slowly and distinctly, not only in phonic drills but at all times. The students should be trained to do the same and to speak, as far as possible, in complete sentences.

The teacher should not, however, carry his zeal for phonic instruction to the extent of interrupting the conversational work and reading lessons to correct the mispronunciations that occur. Far better results are secured by definite phonic drill. The students are desirous of acquiring the ability to converse in understandable English, which does not imply, necessarily, meticulous enunciation and pronunciation. There is not sufficient time at the disposal of either teacher or students to obtain perfection.

Knowledge of a few simple devices will enable the teacher to economize time in teaching correct pronunciations.

Th (soft) . . Place the tongue between the teeth and blow without making a sound, *e.g. thank, tooth.*

Th (hard) . . The same as above, with sound, *e.g. they, other.*

W Pronounce *oo* and join with the remainder of the word, *e.g. oo-alk — walk, away.*

- Wh* The order of the letters is reversed when pronounced, e.g. *hw* (*h-oo*). Instruct the students to form the lips as though about to whistle, and then join with the remainder of the sound, e.g. *h-oo-ite* — *white, when*.
- Ng* The mouth-parts are held in position while the sound is prolonged. There is no expulsion of the breath in making the sound, e.g. *thing, sing*.
- V* In order to make the proper sound the lower lip should be placed slightly between the teeth, e.g. *vine, vinegar*.
- Ch* Make the sound of *t* and quickly run it into *sh*, e.g. *t-sh-ain* — *chain, merchant, search*. (This principle does not apply in words of Greek derivation, as in *chorus, echo*, etc., or when sounded as plain *sh* in *machine*.)

Pronunciations of certain sounds present greater difficulties than do others. The chief causes of this are (1) the absence of such sounds in the native tongue, (2) the tendency to pronounce the letters in the same manner as they are sounded in the foreign language, and (3) the incidental learning of imperfect speech from other foreigners.

The following list contains the majority of the prevalent foreignisms :

OMISSIONS

d with *th* — as *thousanth* for *thousandth*

f with *th* — as *fith* for *fifth*

h in *wh* — as *wen* for *when*

h — as *as* for *has*, *orse* for *horse*.

second *t* — as *hiting* for *hitting*, *litle* for *little*.

Failing to double the *g* in certain words — *finger* for *fin* (*g*) *ger*, *English* for *Eng* (*g*) *lish*.

ADDITIONS

k after *ng* — as *singk* for *sing*, *Englisk* for *English*

g (hard) after *ng* — as *singgg* for *sing*, *bringgg* for *bring*

r to final *a* or *aw* — as *sawr* for *saw*, *idear* for *idea*

SUBSTITUTIONS

b for *p* — as *ben* for *pen*, *bill* for *pill*. (The reverse is also characteristic of foreigners, *i.e.* the substitution of *p* for *b*.)

f for *th* — as *fin* for *thin*, *free* for *three*

f for *v* — as *face* for *vase*, *fife* for *five*

g for *k* — as *gake* for *cake*, *gall* for *call*

n for *ng* — as *goin* for *going*, *playin* for *playing*

s for *sh* — as *srink* for *shrink*, *sip* for *ship*

t for *th* — as *tin* for *thin*, *tree* for *three*

v for *f* — as *vine* for *fine*, *vun* for *fun*

v for *w* — as *vell* for *well*, *vind* for *wind*

v for *wh* — as *vite* for *white*, *veel* for *wheel*

w for *v* — as *wery* for *very*, *west* for *vest*

d for *th* — as *dis* for *this*, *wid* for *with*

Phonics as an aid in reading and spelling. Phonics is of value as an aid to word recognition and spelling. In their theme work, students learn to recognize many words without possessing the ability to analyze these into their phonic elements. This is particularly true of illiterates. To teach the sound values of the letters

of the alphabet, the teacher should group the words that begin with the same letter, *e.g.*

<i>buy</i>	<i>can</i>
<i>book</i>	<i>call</i>

By separating these words into their phonic elements, *b-uy*, *b-ook*, the sound of the letter *b* will be associated with the visual symbol *b*. Sufficient drill will result in an understanding of the sound values of these letters, providing the words used are familiar to the students. The amount of drill necessary to fix the phonic elements will depend largely on the educational background of the students. Success is not to be attained in one or two lessons. No attempt should be made to carry the lesson to the point where it becomes wearisome. The use of sight cards will be found of value in the drill lessons.

The following phonic drills have been used successfully as aids to reading and spelling :

1. Family groupings involving the use of short vowel sounds.
2. The addition of the final *e* to words, thereby creating the long vowel sound, *e.g. at — ate, bit — bite*.
3. Family groupings, involving more difficult phonic elements, *e.g. ew, ould, ance, ook*.
4. Dropping the final *e* when *ing* is added, *e.g. make — making, smoke — smoking*.
5. Words of different spelling, but of the same sound, *e.g. ate — eight, two — to — too*.
6. Words containing the same sound made by a variety of letter combinations, *e.g. me — see — weak — machine — priest*.
7. Unclassified, *e.g. won, once, dozen, been*.

Phonics for beginners

A. Corrective exercises (pronunciation).

1. Vowels, consonants, and diphthongs (see appendix).
2. Substitutions (see appendix).
3. Drills to overcome the tendency to pronounce the final vowel.
4. Words of different spelling and meaning, often pronounced the same by foreigners, *e.g.*

sit — seat

bed — bad

full — fool

B. Recognition of new words (reading and spelling).

1. Simple family groupings involving short vowel sounds, *e.g. an, and, am, at, in, it.*
2. Complex family groupings, *e.g. ew, ow, ould, ance, ook, alk.*
3. The effect of the ending on the basic vowel of a word, *e.g. mad — made, at — ate, rid — ride.*
4. Words of different spelling but of the same sound, *e.g. eight — ate, to — too — two, right — write.*
5. Words containing the same sound made by a variety of letter combinations, *e.g. me, see, weak, machine, priest.*
6. Dropping the final *e* when *ing* is added, *e.g. make — making, smoke — smoking, state — stating.*

Phonics for intermediates

A. Correction of students' errors.

B. Review of necessary phonograms.

Phonics for advanced classes

A. Correction of students' errors.

B. Review of necessary phonograms.

V. PENMANSHIP

Methods of teaching the subject. Although immigrants who are unable to write in some language are no longer admitted to the country, we have with us many who arrived prior to the introduction of legislation prohibiting the admission of illiterates. Consequently, it is essential that the teacher of beginning classes teach the fundamentals of holding the pen and the formation of the letters of the alphabet, when the class is composed of illiterates. With literate classes there will be no need to consider the mechanics of writing.

There should be no pretense that the purpose of penmanship is to develop finished penmen. All that is necessary or desirable is legibility. The drills of the elementary school have no place in the adult immigrant class. The teacher should insist merely upon imitation. The work may be motivated by beginning with the writing of the student's name and address. These may be written at the top of a sheet of paper and given to the student, who can trace the letters of his name until he feels he is able to write it independently. When this has been accomplished, a few additional facts of importance concerning each student may be attempted, such as age, country of birth, name and address of employer, and occupation. Following this, the letters of the alphabet should be learned. This can be expedited by grouping the letters of similar construction, both capitals and small letters, *e.g.* *l, b, h, k* and *O, C, A*. The mere copying of the alphabet is not of initial importance to the student. He is

vitaly interested in writing his name, address, and other points of identification, because these are of immediate use to him. It is the satisfaction of these urgent needs that will prompt him to return to school for the satisfaction of more remote needs.

The number of difficulties encountered by the illiterate foreigner in learning to write is likely to discourage him in his efforts. The teacher should endeavor to lighten his task as much as possible. Perfection should not be expected, nor should the size of the letters be given serious consideration during the earlier stages of the learning process. In fact, the teacher should encourage the students to write large at first and, as their ability in shaping the letters grows, gradually to reduce the size.

Much of this work can be done before the regular classroom exercises. The teacher should prepare the papers in advance and write on the board the letters of the alphabet grouped according to form. Students should be encouraged to practice at home during the evenings that school is not in session. The teacher should examine such efforts and encourage further drill. The first attempts at writing should be preserved for comparison with later efforts.

Penmanship for beginners

A. Alphabet (illiterates).

B. Items of personal identification (illiterates).

Penmanship for intermediates

Legibility is the only requisite.

Penmanship for advanced classes

Legibility is the only requisite.

VI. COPYING AND DICTATION

The value of the subjects. Copying and dictation are necessary steps toward the attainment of ability to write letters and other forms of original composition. Copying is of value initially in the theme work because it furnishes an additional association, enabling the student to vocalize to a greater degree the spoken sound and the visual symbol with the idea involved. In more advanced work copying can usually be left to the discretion of the student. If he desires to write into his notebook facts that are of special interest to him, he should be permitted to do so.

Dictation is of value after the student has acquired a minimum writing vocabulary, and is the means by which the teacher can check ability in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. Work should be carefully examined, corrections made, and the eradication of the errors definitely planned. The return of the papers encourages the students, helps them to realize their weaknesses, and furnishes an incentive for home study.

Copying and dictation for beginners*Copying*

- A. Alphabet (illiterates).
- B. Points of identification — name, address, etc.
- C. Copying of themes or lessons from the board.

Dictation

- A. Sentences and paragraphs containing punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and structure difficulties for students.

Copying and dictation for intermediates

Copying

Material of special value to the students may be copied in their notebooks.

Dictation

Sentences and paragraphs presenting difficulties for students; also personal and business letters for the purpose of securing correct form.

Copying and dictation for advanced classes

Copying

Material of special value to the students may be copied in their notebooks.

Dictation

Sentences and paragraphs testing for spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and structural forms on which there has been previous drill.

VII. SPELLING

Its place in the curriculum. Spelling presents special difficulties to most foreigners. The reason for this is not far to seek. Unlike English, spelling in most languages is phonetic. Furthermore, foreigners have comparatively little use for spelling. Their writing will generally be limited to occasional letters. Consequently, the amount of time and the content of the spelling lessons should be based on these facts. The value of spelling, however, should not be underestimated.

There will be much incidental learning of spelling throughout the course. Formal spelling should be

postponed until the student has acquired some speaking and reading vocabulary. When the formal work is begun, the words should be chosen on the basis of their probable utility to the students in written English.

Sources of spelling material. The Ayres and Buckingham Scales and the Thorndike Word Book contain excellent lists of words, many of which are adaptable to the needs of the foreigner. The study of the writing vocabularies of forty-three advanced adult immigrant students reported in Chapter XII indicates that not only is the Thorndike Word Book an excellent source for spelling material but that the original compositions of the students furnish the best means for the planning of instruction necessary for the eradication of individual spelling errors.

The examination of original compositions enables the teacher to emphasize the spelling of words that form the writing vocabularies of his students. It makes possible the diagnosis of errors and the delving into causes. As suggested in Chapter XII, the misspelled words may be grouped under four headings: (1) phonetic spelling, *e.g. tim for time, scool for school*; (2) mispronunciation, *e.g. ony for only, plenny for plenty*; (3) foreignisms, *e.g. twelf for twelve, samting for something*; (4) words inherently difficult to spell, *e.g. beleive for believe, rownd for round*.

Methods and devices. Each word should be written plainly on the blackboard, pronounced, and spelled slowly and distinctly several times by the teacher. The same procedure should be followed by the class, first in concert, then individually. Spelling words

should then be copied by the students to strengthen associations. Spelling from memory should follow. Accuracy may be tested by the use of elliptical sentences, dictation, and the examination of original compositions.

The work in phonics, if properly handled, will be found to correlate with spelling. The student who has had such training associates the sound with the proper symbol. The sound *th* in *this* will be written correctly and not as *d*, as is only too commonly found among students without phonic training. There are many words, however, that cannot be learned through a knowledge of phonics. Visual training serves a very useful purpose here. The correct form of the word should be so drilled that the spelling of it becomes automatic.

The teacher will find many aids in the work, such as grouping words into families, and underlining or using colored chalk for emphasizing the difficult parts of the words. Drills in the formation of the plural of nouns, the past tense of regular verbs, the comparative and superlative of adjectives; the use of prefixes and suffixes; the doubling of the final consonant and the dropping of the final *e* may be included as aids in the teaching of spelling.

Spelling for beginners

- A. Words selected from the written work of the students.
- B. Words selected from the Thorndike Word Book.

Spelling for intermediates

- A. Words taken from the written work of the students.

B. Words taken from the Ayres or Buckingham Spelling Scales and the Thorndike Word Book that may be valuable additions to the students' writing vocabularies.

Spelling for advanced classes

A. Words taken from the written work of the students.

B. Words selected from the Ayres and Buckingham Spelling Scales or from the Thorndike Word Book that may be valuable additions to the students' writing vocabularies.

VIII. STRUCTURE DRILL

Its relative importance. The use of grammar as the primary basis for learning a language is due to two factors :

1. Most, if not all, foreign languages have highly inflected forms which make essential the introduction of grammar in the teaching of those languages. In comparison, the English language has much less inflection. A foreign student who has been educated in his own tongue is aware of the importance of grammar and inflection in acquiring a knowledge of his language, and he feels that the same procedure is necessary in order to understand English.

2. A summary of the objectives in foreign language teaching in American high schools presents very clearly the second factor for the continued emphasis upon grammar. These objectives have been stated by the teachers themselves as being :

a. Commercial — the need of an ability to read communications from foreign business houses and to formulate replies in the same tongue.

b. Travel — pupils who, after leaving high school, may

travel in foreign countries are better enabled to grasp the language if they have a grammatical foundation.

c. Cultural — a reading knowledge of a foreign language enables the individual possessing it to become conversant with the literature and life of the country whose language is known.

d. Contributions to English — a knowledge of a foreign language permits of a better understanding of English through the contributions of the foreign language to the vocabulary of our own tongue.

e. Scientific — the studies and researches recorded in foreign language journals are available to the student who has a reading knowledge of such a language or languages.

f. Sympathy and understanding of other people — a nation can be known only through a study of its language and its literature, the latter being an expression of the life of the people.

g. Disciplinary — the study of a foreign language serves as a medium for mental training irrespective of the attainment of any ability in the practical application of it.

h. Actual use in speech — the *sine qua non* of all language instruction is the ability to use the language as a means of carrying on conversation.

The majority of these objectives emphasizes the grammatical phase of the language and places little stress upon the major function of all language work, namely, its use in conversation.

The traditional methods of teaching a foreign language through grammar, which still hold sway in many of our high schools and colleges, have been carried over to the teaching of English to foreigners. Some teachers feel that a proper understanding of the language can

be attained only through a study of its form. A knowledge of grammar is quite valuable and worth while but not entirely essential. This is particularly true in teaching immigrants. Their need of a speaking knowledge of language is pressing ; the amount of time that they can devote to study is limited ; and, finally, the purpose of the teacher is not to turn out accomplished linguists. These reasons point clearly to the advisability of limiting the amount of grammar that should be taught in adult immigrant classes.

The teacher who spends most of his time drilling conjugations and declensions should not expect students to learn to speak the language. Such a method of procedure is almost entirely lacking in results and is an extravagant expenditure of the students' time. A language is learned through use, which means the establishment of associations between the objects, actions, and relationships and the English symbols which represent them. Such associations are more readily formed and longer retained when the learning is meaningful, and result in the formation of a definite concept. Students subjected to a series of grammar lessons in place of the direct method of learning a language rarely, if ever, acquire the ability to express themselves in the new language.

Grammar has a definite place in the study of a language. In adult immigrant classes the rules of grammar and rhetoric can be readily dispensed with during the first year of instruction. For such terms as *present*, *past*, and *future*, the words *today*, *yesterday*, and *tomorrow* may be used. *One* and *more than one* may be

substituted for *singular* and *plural*. Objectivity during instruction will eliminate the necessity of using the terms positive, comparative, and superlative in the comparison of adjectives and adverbs. The idioms that occur in reading and conversation can be taught best if objectified. Thus, the expression, "How do you do?" which presents great difficulty if the teacher attempts to explain the meaning of each word, is readily understood by the student when it is used in connection with the dramatization of the personal introduction.

It is evident that the terminology of formal grammar can be entirely omitted with beginning classes. Exercises involving grammatical structures and usages should be used constantly; but the employment of grammatical terms and rules, as such, serves no particular need. Such terms are used in the course of study for the convenience of the teacher and should not be carried over to the classroom work.

As the subject matter of the lessons broadens, the work in grammar may be introduced to make clear the more complex sentence structures and enable the students to acquire increased skill in expressing their thoughts. Possibly the best procedure to follow in teaching grammar is that suggested by the analytic-inductive method.¹ The cases of nouns and pronouns; the number, person, and tense of verbs; and other grammatical rules are formulated from concrete illustrations in context. Examples of the rules may be selected from the reading exercises or the conversa-

¹ LEOPOLD BAEHLSON — *New Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*; Teachers College Record, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 63-78; also published by Ginn and Co., 1905.

tional work after the students have used the grammatical forms.

Structure drill for beginners

- A.* Nouns — gender, number, and case.
- B.* Pronouns.
 - 1. Personal — gender, number, person, case.
 - 2. Demonstrative.
 - 3. Indefinite.
 - 4. Interrogative.
 - 5. Relative — case.
- C.* Substituting pronouns for nouns.
- D.* Verbs.
 - 1. Number and person.
 - 2. Tense.
 - 3. Changing from active to passive voice.
 - 4. Changing from simple to progressive form.
 - 5. Auxiliary verbs.
- E.* Drills in the use of prepositions.
- F.* Drills in the use of conjunctions.
- G.* Adjectives and adverbs — comparisons.
- H.* Common idiomatic expressions.
- I.* Completing elliptical sentences.
- J.* Drills in word recognition.
- K.* Grouping words as to meanings.
- L.* Grouping words useful in description.
- M.* Changing direct to indirect discourse.
- N.* Exercises in word order.

Structure drill for intermediates

- A.* Nouns, pronouns, and verbs (number).
- B.* Nouns and pronouns (gender).
- C.* Nouns and pronouns (case).
- D.* Pronouns (kinds).

- E.* Tenses of verbs.
- F.* Progressive forms of the verb.
- G.* Auxiliary verbs.
- H.* Negatives with verbs.
- I.* The interrogative sentence.
- J.* Prepositions.
- K.* Conjunctions.
- L.* Adjectives and adverbs (comparison and correct usage).
- M.* Abbreviations.
- N.* Contractions.
- O.* Capitalization and punctuation.
- P.* Word order.

Structure drill for advanced classes

- A.* Prefixes and suffixes.
- B.* Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.
- C.* Dictionary work.
- D.* Varying expressions found in reading.
- E.* Changing words to phrases and vice versa.
- F.* Word transposition.
- G.* Changing direct to indirect discourse and vice versa.
- H.* Changing the singular to the plural and vice versa.
- I.* Tense variations.
- J.* Irregular verbs.
- K.* Adjectives and adverbs (comparison and correct usage).
- L.* Prepositions (correct usage).
- M.* Punctuation and capitalization.

IX. COMPOSITION

The order of development. The transition from the copying of the theme to the writing of an original composition should be very gradual. The teacher

should realize that his students will have less need for written English than for speaking or reading. In all probability, this need will be confined to the writing of letters. The subject matter should, therefore, be narrow in its scope, and the time allotted to it limited.

The stages marking the progress toward original composition and letter writing are :

1. Copying — the duplication of the theme in writing by the students.
2. Filling out elliptical sentences, *e.g.*
 “I ——— to the window.”
 “I open the ———.”
3. Answering questions in writing.
4. Using a key word to write an original sentence, *e.g.*
 “Write a sentence about a man.”
5. Using a key word to write more than one sentence, *e.g.*
 “Write three sentences about the school.”
6. Paraphrasing — the reproduction of a paragraph that was read to the class.
7. Writing an original paragraph.
8. The letter form and letter writing.

A word of caution would not be amiss concerning the marking of written work. The standards of achievement should not be placed too high, especially in the beginning classes. Many errors in spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure will be found. The purpose of the written work is not to develop the ability to write flawless English but to enable the students to express themselves in an understandable manner. If words are misspelled and capitals ignored but the meaning is perfectly clear, a beginning student may

be considered as having progressed. As the work develops through the intermediate and advanced classes, the standard will naturally be raised until, in the latter group, all the common errors should be eliminated. Students in the advanced course should be able to write a paragraph with punctuation and capitalization reasonably accurate.

Written work has considerable value as an aid to the teacher in securing a definite idea of the shortcomings of the students as regards spelling, punctuation, idioms, and sentence structure. The errors of the different students should be listed or definitely fixed in the mind of the teacher, and drills serving to eradicate such faults introduced in the succeeding oral and written work.

Composition for beginners

A. Identification — name, address, age, etc.

B. Filling blank spaces to test the vocabulary taught,
e.g.

“I — to the door.”

“— go to the door.”

“I go to the —.”

C. Theme or lesson.

1. Copying from the text or board.
2. Writing from dictation.
3. Writing from memory.

D. Answering questionings concerning the theme or reading exercise.

E. Writing short sentences using words suggested by the teacher, such words to be selected from some topic read or discussed in the class.

F. Paraphrasing a reading lesson.

G. Filling in blanks — checks, money orders, receipts, application for library cards, declaration of intention, etc.

H. Copying correct letter forms.

I. Writing simple letters after the correct form is learned.

J. Writing letters in answer to advertisements, letters of inquiry, complaint, ordering goods, etc.

K. Addressing envelopes.

L. Personal letters.

M. Written work incidental to structure drill.

Composition for intermediates

A. Elliptical sentences.

B. Dictation.

C. Reproduction of reading lessons.

D. Filling out forms — deposit slips, checks, money orders, application for library cards, telegrams, naturalization forms, etc.

E. Original compositions.

F. Letters.

G. Written work incidental to structure drill.

Composition for advanced classes

A. Letter writing.

B. Outlines and compositions.

C. Written work incidental to structure drill.

X. MEMORIZATION WORK

Course for beginners

Proverbs and maxims are found in all languages and are used for purposes of illustration, variety, and force. Where English idioms and desirable words can be emphasized by the memorization of a proverb or maxim, the work in English will be greatly stimulated and aided. The students, from

the very beginning, should be encouraged to use these proverbs or maxims in their conversation, and later in their written work.

Course for intermediates

- A. Sayings, maxims, and proverbs.
- B. Extracts from speeches.
- C. Short poems.
- D. Songs — patriotic, folk, and popular.

Course for advanced classes

- A. Sayings, maxims, and proverbs.
- B. Extracts from speeches.
- C. Short poems.
- D. Songs — patriotic, folk, and popular.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. For what purposes should English be taught to the foreigner, and from what fields of experience should the English be drawn?

2. Discuss a topic connected with the teaching of English to foreigners, *e.g.* reading, vocabulary building, spelling, etc. Analyze the topic under three heads. (a) What is worth teaching? (b) How is it usually taught? (c) What innovations do you suggest?

3. Prepare a unit of instruction in English, taking into consideration (a) the development of a certain number of themes, (b) conversation, (c) word recognition, (d) spelling; all to be taught in three lessons.

4. Plan instruction for an adult immigrant class to cover a period of two weeks, three sessions per week, two hours per session, and based on the following assumptions: (a) the importance of oral English, (b) the worthwhileness of the content for the students, (c) the interests of the

students. Plan for illiterates, intermediate, or advanced students.

5. Write a complete lesson plan for the first evening's instruction for students who speak no English.

6. Is it worth while spending time in corrective phonics? If so, how much time should be devoted to this phase of the work?

7. Outline a model lesson in phonics for an illiterate class.

8. Describe devices that will aid in teaching conventional conversation.

9. What are the remedies for students who speak low and indistinctly?

10. Describe devices to correct a specific fault in accent.

11. How should the methodology of reading be modified to meet the requirements of adult immigrant classes?

12. How would you conduct a reading lesson for beginners?

13. Outline in full detail a silent reading lesson for an advanced class.

14. What is the utilitarian purpose of the study of spelling for adult immigrant classes?

15. How should spelling be taught in adult immigrant classes?

16. Construct a paragraph of fifty to one hundred words suitable for an advanced class. Show what language exercises may be based on the paragraph.

17. What principles would guide you in limiting the field of written English, and how would you determine the relative emphasis to be laid on the different topics?

18. Describe devices that may aid in teaching illiterates how to write their names.

19. What is the place of grammar in an adult immigrant course?

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CHAPTER X

METHOD AND CONTENT OF THE COURSES

(Continued)

XI. HYGIENE

The need for the subject. Aside from the importance of hygiene as a topic in English it is of great value in helping to place before the foreigner the standards of American life. Not always does the alien have adequate ideas as to proper housing and sanitation. His experiences have been largely different from ours; therefore, he often finds it difficult to adapt himself readily to his new home and the new standards of living.

At the outset it is necessary to give to the students the vocabulary related to the parts of the body; and the most effective method of teaching it in an objective manner is by the use of physical training. The study of the parts of the body is followed by a discussion of food and clothing. The purpose of these topics is not merely to emphasize new vocabulary but to teach American manners and customs. In the latter part of the beginners' course the subject of disease prevention, the value of vaccination and quarantine, and the services of hospitals and clinics should be discussed.

The stress in the intermediate class should be placed

on personal hygiene and home sanitation, and the subject very closely correlated with civics. Foreigners tend to be clannish, to consider the welfare of those belonging to their own particular group and to ignore the outsider and the community at large. It is essential to break down all clannishness, to emphasize the interrelationships of human beings, and to stress the interdependence of individuals in the matter of good health and sanitation.

The work in the advanced class necessitates greater detail and lends itself better to discussion and argumentation. Cause and effect should be stressed, and information given as to how to keep the vital organs in good condition. Physiology and anatomy are to be omitted.

Where hygiene is given a specific place in the program of studies, the work should be carried on by oral discussions in which the teacher directs and the students do most of the talking. Skillful direction and questioning will bring out the differences between European and American standards of living. This method of teaching will prove of greater interest to the class because the discussion will then be based on the past experiences of the students. The use of charts, pictures, advertising material, stereopticon slides, and motion pictures will be found helpful and stimulating.

Simplicity of presentation. The following is an illustration of the degree of difficulty and the amount of subject matter that should be utilized in the presentation of lessons in hygiene. The lesson on the next page is on the circulatory system.

Good health depends largely on the condition of the blood. Not only does pure blood build up the body but it also helps us to resist disease. We must take care of what and how we eat. Alcohol, spices, and too much meat do not help to make the blood pure; neither does the eating of too much food.

We must be careful not to overwork and must be sure to get sufficient sleep.

Keeping the skin clean and the kidneys and bowels in good condition help to keep the blood pure.

People who use medicines to keep the blood healthy are making a mistake. It is better to take exercise in the out-of-doors, eat just enough of good food, particularly vegetables, take cold baths, if possible, and rid the body of waste matter.

Hygiene for beginners

A. Parts of the body.

B. Clothing.

1. Adapting the material to the season or climate.
2. Clothing for babies and children.
3. The care of clothing.

C. Food.

1. Names of food — animal and vegetable.
2. Diet.
3. Adapting the food to the season or climate.
4. Food for babies, growing children, and invalids.
5. Care of food.

D. Health and sickness.

1. Cleanliness of person and home.
2. Vaccination.
3. Quarantine.
4. Hospitals and clinics.

- E.* Care of the teeth.
- F.* Tonsils and adenoids.

Hygiene for intermediates

- A.* Personal cleanliness.
- B.* Home sanitation.
- C.* Care of health.
- D.* Vaccination.
- E.* Quarantine.
- F.* Care of the eyes.
- G.* Infection and sterilization.
- H.* Hospitals and clinics.
- I.* Food and housing laws.
- J.* Care of the teeth.
- K.* Tonsils and adenoids.
- L.* Relationship of good health to industrial efficiency, happiness of self and family, and good citizenship.

Hygiene for advanced classes

- A.* Care of the eyes.
- B.* Care of the ears.
- C.* Food and diet.
- D.* Hygiene of digestion.
- E.* Hygiene of the nervous system.
- F.* Hygiene of the circulatory system.
- G.* Relation of clothing to health.
- H.* The value of cleanliness.
- I.* Disease germs.
- J.* Sterilization, vaccination, and quarantine.
- K.* Care of the teeth.
- L.* First aid.

XII. GEOGRAPHY

Objectives and procedure. The geography of the beginning class is almost entirely local. Here, as in other subjects, the attempt is made to tie up the students' environment and experiences with the subject matter. These are, briefly, the principal objectives:

1. To strengthen power of expression in English.
2. To aid the student in adapting himself to his environment.
3. To aid the student in knowing his city, its physical topography, its historic setting, its industrial possibilities, and its geographical relation to the state and nation.

The method of presentation should be intimate and personal as in other subjects. The teacher will do well to draw on the experiences of his students initially, and develop the subject matter from the known to the unknown, the near to the remote. The interest may be increased and the work stimulated by the use of maps, charts, and other objective material. Class excursions and trips, where possible, will prove very valuable in this connection and will incidentally aid in holding the group in school.

The objectives in the intermediate course are:

1. To acquaint the students with the most important geographical elements beyond the community, those of the state and nation.
2. To show them the effects of general geographical elements such as temperature, rainfall, and surface on the people and industries.

3. To give information relative to the distribution and need for the occupations and industries in which the students are engaged.

The interest in the work may be increased by the use of pictures, maps, motion pictures, or any other device that will objectify the teaching. The teacher should avoid all details and stress only the highlights of the subject matter. The work should be oral in character and may be supplemented by the use of geographical readers, provided the texts are within the scope of the students' knowledge of English and the presentation of material is interesting.

The subject matter for advanced students is limited largely to industrial geography. Important topics touching the present day worker, such as labor unions, capital and labor, labor and political parties, and similar subjects lend themselves readily to discussion and debate. Causal relationships should be stressed and the work objectified when possible.

Simplicity of presentation. The following is an illustration of the degree of difficulty and the amount of subject matter that should be utilized in the presentation of lessons in geography. The lesson below is on the subject of manufacturing.

Not many years ago each family produced all that it needed in the way of food, clothing, and shelter. It was discovered that it was much easier for a man to make one thing than to try to make all the things he needed. For example, it was more satisfactory for one man to make two pairs of shoes and another man to make two coats, and then for each to exchange the extra articles. This

is called the division of labor, and from it has sprung manufacturing.

To carry on manufacturing we must have a supply of labor (people to do the work) ; steam and electricity to drive the machinery ; railroad, river, and canal transportation to carry raw and manufactured products ; and a market in which to sell the goods. (Illustrations should then be made by referring to a manufacturing city such as New York, Chicago, or Philadelphia.)

Geography for beginners

- A. Directions — north, south, east, west.
- B. Streets of the city.
- C. Geographical divisions of the city.
- D. Location of public buildings, parks, and playgrounds.
- E. Car service and transportation.
- F. Locations of the chief industries of the community.
- G. Nearby towns, cities, and resorts.
- H. State and national capitals.

Geography for intermediates

A. Elementary discussion of the following as they affect living conditions and industries :

- 1. Temperature.
- 2. Moisture.
- 3. Soil and rock.
- 4. Atmosphere.
- 5. Animal life.
- 6. Geographical barriers.

B. Elementary discussion of the principal industries dependent upon the vocations of the students, such as :

- 1. Manufacturing.
- 2. Agriculture.
- 3. Mining.

4. Transportation.
5. Building trades.
6. Commerce.

C. The need for and application of these industries to the local community.

D. The need for and application of these industries to the state.

E. The need for and application of these industries to the nation.

F. The study of the geographical highlights of the state in which the students live.

1. Transportation.
2. Temperature and weather conditions.
3. Chief geographical elements — river, cities, and mountains.
4. Principal historic interests of the state.
5. Opportunities for work in the various sections of the state.
6. Educational and social possibilities for the family in the various sections of the state.

Geography for advanced classes

A. Industry.

1. Inventions and improvements.
2. Inventions made by immigrants.
3. Development from hand to power machinery.
4. The sweat shop.
5. The factory system.

B. Agriculture.

1. Relation to other industries.
2. Machinery and equipment.
3. Markets.
4. Opportunities — social, economic, and educational.

- C. The worker.
 - 1. The influence of immigration.
 - 2. Women in industry.
 - 3. Child labor.
 - 4. Factory laws.
- D. Capital and labor.
- E. Labor unions.
- F. Labor and political parties.
- G. The important geographical features of the United States.
 - 1. Cities — Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, Detroit, Cleveland, St. Louis, Chicago, New Orleans, Denver, Los Angeles, San Francisco, the capital of the state, and important neighboring cities. (The general location and reasons for the importance of each city.)
 - 2. Mountains — Appalachian and Rocky.
 - 3. Rivers — Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Colorado, Columbia, state and local rivers. (Teach from the point of view of the usefulness of these rivers to the nation.)
 - 4. Our neighbors and boundaries.
 - 5. The distribution of industries (dependent on the location of the students).
 - 6. The advantages and disadvantages of living in the various sections of the country, depending on the occupations and interests of the students.

XIII. HISTORY

The method of procedure. The subject matter in history for beginning classes should be presented mainly in biographical form. Several of the outstanding per-

sonalities in American history should be studied. Mention might also be made of Lafayette, DeKalb, and other foreigners who made contributions to America. These historic figures faced many problems in life more or less similar to those faced at the present time by the alien. Nothing can be of greater help in the work of Americanization than making the student feel that he is, in spirit at least, an American in the making; that he has a contribution to make to America and many duties to perform in return for the innumerable privileges he enjoys.

In this subject, as in civics, the presentation of material must be intimate and personal. Enthusiasm must be awakened; and this can be accomplished best by drawing on the experiences of the students, by discovering their ambitions and hopes in their new homes, and by making as many comparisons as possible between their lives and problems and those of the historic personalities presented.

Though the primary objective in beginners' history is the strengthening of the students' powers in English, the possibility of inculcating the desired spirit of Americanism, with its ideals of loyalty, coöperation, obedience, and leadership must not be overlooked.

The objectives for the intermediate course are :

1. To present American ideals.
2. To present the basic facts in American history.
3. To give some understanding of what is taking place in the world today.

As in the beginners' course, the attempt must be made to have the pupils feel that they have something

in common with the immigrants of other times and with the natives of today. Material should be presented, as far as possible, in narrative form. The method should be oral. Details are to be avoided. Only the strikingly large phases of the topics suggested in the course are to be emphasized, and in a manner that can best create and hold the interest of the students. The teacher should visualize the lessons by the use of pictures, stereopticon lectures, and motion pictures. History readers may be used, provided the vocabulary is within the scope of the students' knowledge of English.

A more complete survey of the historic development of our country should be undertaken in the advanced course. The amount of detail will be determined by the time at the disposal of the teacher and the interest displayed by the members of the class. Important periods and events in our history should be selected. Time relationships should be established between events in American history and developments in Europe whenever possible.

The objectives of the advanced course are :

1. To furnish a background for an appreciation of the American form of government and our economic and social standing.
2. To permit of an interpretation of present-day conditions in the light of past achievements.
3. To acquaint the students with the outstanding events in our history, so that they may have an adequate idea of the development of the nation and a comprehension of the forces that have created the institutions that now exist.

The topics of this grade lend themselves to discussion, argumentation, and debate. Cause and effect must be constantly stressed. Supplementary historical readers, newspapers, and magazines should be utilized to the fullest extent and, where possible, motion pictures.

Simplicity of presentation. The following is an illustration of the degree of difficulty and the amount of subject matter that should be utilized in the presentation of lessons in history. The lesson below is on the subject of the expansion of the United States.

At the close of the Revolution, the United States extended from Canada to Florida, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. Most of the people at that time lived along the coast. Gradually they began to go west and occupy the fertile land beyond the mountains.

In 1803 the United States purchased Louisiana from France, and thereby doubled the area of the country. The boundary was extended westward to the Rocky Mountains and included the land which is now one of the greatest grain and corn producing regions of the world. People soon began to move westward into the Louisiana territory.

Texas, which had won her independence from Mexico, was admitted to the United States in 1845.

As a result of the Mexican War, which was fought over the question of the Texas boundary, the great southwest was added to our area. Mexico gave up what is now California, Arizona, New Mexico, and all land north and west of the Rio Grande for fifteen million dollars.

In 1846 the United States got Oregon and Washington by a treaty with England.

In 1847 Alaska was purchased from Russia.

In 1898, as a result of the Spanish-American War, the Philippine Islands were added to our territory. During the same year, Hawaii was annexed to the United States.

From the Revolution to the present time the nation has grown very rapidly in area, industries, and commerce. The population of the country has increased from 3,500,000 to 110,000,000. We are now one of the leading nations of the world.

History for beginners

A. Columbus — the spirit of inquiry and search.

B. Washington — his loyalty, service, and self-sacrifice.

C. Franklin — his contributions and maxims.

D. Kosciusko and Lafayette — seekers of liberty.

E. Lincoln — struggles for success; the great emancipator.

F. Roosevelt — square deal policy, and attitude toward immigration.

G. Wilson — his idealism.

H. The president in office.

I. The American flag — story of its origin and changes.

J. The national holidays.

K. Comparison of the first with the present-day immigrants.

1. Nationalities.

2. Motives.

3. Where they landed.

4. Mode of living.

5. Earning a living.

6. Education.

7. Prejudices — governmental and religious.

History for intermediates

A. Early American homes and community life (contrast the first immigrants with those of the present day — see beginners' course).

B. First English settlers.

C. The first immigrants who came to the particular community in which the students live.

D. The causes of the Revolution.

E. The Declaration of Independence.

F. The Constitution.

G. The growth of the United States — expansion.

H. The slavery question.

I. The Civil War.

J. The great immigration movement since 1880.

K. The industrial development of the United States.

L. The advantages of the immigrant of today over those of fifty years ago.

History for advanced classes

A. Columbus.

B. Great representative explorers — English, French, Spanish, Dutch.

C. Settlements — the most important one of each nation.

D. Why English is the language of the United States.

E. The American Revolution — causes, struggles, and leaders.

F. The Declaration of Independence.

G. Constitution.

H. The early expansion of the United States.

I. The Civil War — slavery and Lincoln.

J. The expansion of the United States since the Civil War.

K. The World War.

L. Inventions and discoveries.

M. Modern problems — political parties, immigration, foreign relations.

N. Current events.

XIV. CIVICS AND CITIZENSHIP

Aims and methods. The course in civics for beginners is limited to the governmental agencies with which the foreigner naturally must come into contact. Regardless of his work, whether it be among the English-speaking people or his own group, he cannot escape contacts with organized society. Following are the objectives of this subject :

1. To increase vocabulary control and power in English.
2. To bring home to the newcomer the value of organized society and the need of government.
3. To point out clearly the services of the city, state, and nation.
4. To furnish a background for more advanced discussions in civics, and the future preparation for citizenship.

Pedagogically the subject matter as outlined presents these values :

1. It is of immediate interest to the foreigner, because it begins at the points of contact between the governmental agencies and the individual.

2. Presentation is from the known to the unknown, offering innumerable possibilities for contrast all along the line with experiences of students in their own countries.

The subject matter for the intermediate classes is meant to be a direct preparation for naturalization and

citizenship. This is necessary because many of the students in the intermediate course are anxious to become citizens and should not be deprived of the opportunity of doing so at the earliest possible moment. Further, many of them will not return for the work of the advanced course. In addition, there are many foreigners who have filed their petitions for naturalization and are awaiting the court examination. In the interim they enter the evening schools to prepare for the catechism. They will be found in both the intermediate and advanced classes. More details may be introduced in the advanced course, conditioned by the amount of the students' previous preparation.

The emphasis in the second year should be placed upon the need for the different forms of government, legislative, executive, and judicial ; the various officials in a democratic form of government, the services performed by these officials, and the duty of all citizens and prospective citizens to observe the law.

The presentation of the material must be general and oral in character, touching on the important points only, and omitting all details. Use socialized methods, drawing on the knowledge of the students in order to contrast European governments with our own. Charts, maps, mock trials, and naturalization hearings, stereopticon lectures, and motion pictures will objectify the work and increase the interest.

The objectives of the advanced course are :

1. To encourage the assumption of the duties of citizenship by all the students who have not yet done so.
2. To prepare such students that they may know what

is required of them, and so experience as little difficulty as possible in taking the necessary steps toward citizenship.

The workings of the different departments of the national, state, and local governments may be emphasized in detail in an advanced class. It should not, however, be dull, dry, or uninteresting. Similarities and contrasts with each student's native form of government should be pointed out. Likewise, the advantages of our democratic form of government should be emphasized.

The ideals of the Declaration of Independence and the provisions of the Constitution should be understood by the students. Mere memorization is not sufficient. It has not been many years since the method of learning by memorizing was used in our elementary schools. Those of us who had no other choice but to endure such a method can readily recall the lack of interest resulting from its use. Fortunately, these conditions no longer exist in our elementary schools; yet some teachers and writers of textbooks recommend that our foreign students acquire their knowledge of our ideals and institutions and their interest in them by just such archaic methods. The expression, in simple language, of the thoughts embodied in these two documents will prove more effective and of much greater interest. Excerpts from either, or both, if judiciously used, may be of value.

The method of instruction should be varied as much as possible and be concrete and practical. The following methods and aids to presentation may be employed effectively.

1. Informal talks and discussions, with emphasis on pupil participation.
2. Diagrams and illustrative drawings.
3. Maps of the community, state, and nation.
4. Stereopticon lectures and motion pictures.
5. Filling out blanks for declaration of intention and petition for naturalization.
6. Dramatization — mock naturalization hearing.
7. Prominent speakers — public officials and foreign-born business men.
8. Debates.
9. Clubs and student government.
10. Graduation exercises — reception for the new citizens and the granting of diplomas.

Simplicity of presentation. The following is an illustration of the degree of difficulty and the amount of subject matter that should be utilized in the presentation of lessons in civics and citizenship. The lesson below explains how laws are made :

The laws of the nation are made in Washington by senators and representatives who come from all of the forty-eight states. Each state sends two senators to the Senate, and a number of representatives to the House of Representatives, depending on the population of the state. The more people there are in a state, the larger the number of representatives sent to Washington. The Senate and House of Representatives together are called Congress.

A law in the making is called a bill. It may start in either house. After it has passed in the house where it was introduced, it is sent to the other house. If the second house passes it, it is sent to the president

of the United States who either signs or vetoes it. If it is signed, it becomes a law. If the bill is vetoed, it is returned to Congress for another vote, and if passed by two thirds of both houses it becomes a law without the signature of the president.

The people of the states keep in touch with their senators and representatives, either in person or by letters and telegrams, and make known their wishes so that their representatives can carry them out.

Congress can make only such laws as the Constitution gives it the power to make. If the people are not satisfied with a certain condition and want Congress to pass a law which it has not the power to pass, then the Constitution must be amended or added to. An amendment must receive the approval of two thirds of both houses, and then the approval of three fourths of the states.

Civics and citizenship for beginners

A. The city.

1. Ordinances regarding spitting, licenses to sell, marry, etc.
2. Protection of health — hospitals, clinics, and quarantine.
3. Water supply.
4. Police protection.
5. Fire protection.
6. Educational facilities.
7. Streets.
8. Lighting.
9. Disposal of rubbish and garbage.
10. Parks and playgrounds.
11. Libraries.
12. Legal aid.

- a.* Necessity for pure food and drugs (where and how to make complaint).
- b.* Correct weights and measures (where and how to make complaint).
- c.* Housing and tenement laws to show how the city protects the tenant (where and how to make complaints).
- d.* Free legal aid (where obtained).

B. State.

- 1. Free employment bureau.
- 2. Institutions for the insane, mental defectives, etc.
- 3. Educational facilities.
- 4. Roads.
- 5. Licenses.

C. The Nation.

- 1. Money system.
- 2. Postal system.
- 3. Postal savings.
- 4. Regulation of immigration.
- 5. School aid.
- 6. Distribution of land.

D. Why laws are necessary.

E. The advantages of being a citizen of the United States.

F. The duties and obligations of citizenship.

G. Names of the present mayor, governor, and president of the United States.

H. Patriotic topics.

- 1. Respect for the flag.
- 2. Salute to the flag.
- 3. Patriotic songs and exercises.

Civics and citizenship for intermediates

A. The privileges the immigrant receives and the duties he owes.

- B.* Why laws are necessary.
- C.* How city laws are made.
- D.* How city laws are enforced.
- E.* How city laws are interpreted.
- F.* City departments — personnel and functions.
- G.* How state laws are made.
- H.* How state laws are enforced.
- I.* How state laws are interpreted.
- J.* How United States laws are made.
- K.* How United States laws are enforced.
- L.* How United States laws are interpreted.
- M.* Why and how aliens become citizens.
- N.* Mock trials, mock elections, student activities, clubs, and specimen ballots that will give in concrete form certain governmental procedures.
- O.* Salute to the flag and patriotic songs.

Civics and citizenship for advanced classes

- A.* All important facts and procedures of naturalization.
- B.* Government in the United States.
 - 1. National.
 - 2. State.
 - 3. County.
 - 4. City.
 - 5. Town.
- C.* Legislative, executive, and judicial departments of the government.
- D.* History and elements of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution.
- E.* What the national government does for its citizens, and their reciprocal duties.
- F.* What the state government does for its citizens, and their reciprocal duties.

G. What the county government does for its citizens, and their reciprocal duties.

H. What the city government does for its citizens, and their reciprocal duties.

I. What the town government does for its citizens, and their reciprocal duties.

J. Political parties.

K. Elections and ballot systems.

L. Initiative, referendum, and recall.

XV. ARITHMETIC

Utilitarian value to be stressed. In arithmetic, the prime purpose is to increase the student's vocabulary and to aid him in extending his power of expressing his ideas. In other words, each arithmetic lesson is, in reality, a language lesson in which the topic necessitates the use of arithmetical terms and processes. For this reason, utility must be the keynote for the selection of material. The work must cover the actual needs of the student. The problems must be real, within the scope of the student's understanding of English, and those that touch his experiences.

The development of arithmetical skill is unnecessary. The teacher must not be concerned with the correctness of the answers. Approximation is sufficient. Skill in English expression is to be sought. The old method of oral analysis can be profitably employed for this purpose and the language of the student carefully watched. In teaching the topics under business forms, money order, and saving money, the actual blank forms should be brought into the class and used.

The arithmetic for the intermediate grade is a review of the beginners' course and, in addition, those elements of decimals, per cent, interest, profit and loss that may be of value to the student. It is the duty of the teacher to discover the needs of his class, and to help the students in the acquirement of the necessary knowledge.

The work in both decimals and percentage is to be limited to the barest essentials. Only that which may be of service to the student in his everyday business transactions is to be used. The arithmetical vocabulary must be understood by the students and the problems used such as may be solved mentally. Here, again, as in the beginners' grade, the arithmetic must be made incidental to the work in English.

It must be borne in mind that the majority of the students are wage earners or small business men, that the success of the individual will depend largely on the wiseness of economy exercised and the type of investment made. It is for that reason that business arithmetic and investments are stressed for advanced students. Though the work is of a more advanced character, all technical discussions and detailed processes are to be avoided. The work should be largely oral, special attention being given to the vocabulary and the use of the various arithmetical terms in context. Problems should entail the use of numbers that will permit a maximum use of mental arithmetic. Topics under investments and ethics of business lend themselves well to oral discussion and debate, *e.g.*

1. The advantages and disadvantages of the different forms of investment.

2. The value of courtesy in business.
3. Honesty in business is the best policy.

Simplicity of presentation. The following is an illustration of the degree of difficulty and the amount of subject matter that should be utilized in the presentation of lessons in arithmetic. The lesson below is on percentage :

How does the business man figure his gain or loss?

If a merchant sold for \$99 an article that cost \$100, how many dollars did he lose? What other way has he of expressing his loss?

Instead of saying, "I lost \$1," or $\frac{1}{100}$ of the cost, he can say, "I lost 1 per cent on the deal." In other words, one one-hundredth means one per cent. Per cent means hundredths. (The teacher should explain the values of the more commonly used percentages, together with their fractional equivalents.)

Types of Problems

1. An article cost \$3 and was sold for \$4. How much money was gained? What per cent?
2. A man had a thousand dollars in the bank for a year and received 4 per cent interest annually. How much did he receive when he drew out his money?
3. A man receives \$30 a week and spends \$20. What per cent does he save?
4. A man owed a bill of \$100 but received a reduction of 5 per cent for paying the bill within 10 days of the purchase. How much money did he save by paying his bill promptly?
5. A salesman received 10 per cent on all sales that he made. If his sales were \$500 the first week, what wages did he get?

Arithmetic for beginners

- A. Telling time and the number of days in each month.
- B. Numbers (including dozen, score, gross).
- C. United States money.
- D. Making change (dramatize buying and selling).
- E. Scales and measures — long, dry, liquid, avoirdupois, time.
- F. Economy in buying, *e.g.*
 - 13¢ — 2 for 25¢
 - 5¢ — 6 for 25¢
 - 20¢ — 6 for \$1
- G. Calculating wages, *e.g.*
 - 20 garments at 15¢ per garment.
 - 45 hours of work at 40¢ per hour.

(Problems to be varied according to the needs of the students.)
- H. Household expenses and elementary presentation of the budget.
- I. Saving money.
 - 1. Bank account — deposits, withdrawals, checks.
 - 2. Postal savings.
- J. Business forms — bills, receipts, notes.
- K. Money orders.
- L. Fractions — $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$.

Arithmetic for intermediates

- A. Scales and measures (see beginners' course).
- B. Household expenses and budget (see beginners' course).
- C. Calculating wages (see beginners' course).
- D. Fractions (see beginners' course).
- E. Business forms and saving money.

1. Deposits, withdrawals, and checks.
2. Bills, receipts, and notes.
3. Money orders and postal savings.
- F.* Decimals.
- G.* Percentage.
- H.* Interest.
- I.* Profit and loss.

Arithmetic for advanced classes

- A.* Review fractions.
- B.* Review decimals.
- C.* Review percentage.
- D.* Business arithmetic.
 1. Interest.
 2. Profit and loss.
 3. Commission.
 4. Discount.
 5. Taxes.
 6. Business forms (see intermediate course).
- E.* Investments.
 1. Banks.
 2. Postal saving system.
 3. Building and loan associations.
 4. Loans.
 5. Stocks and bonds.
 6. Mortgages and real estate investments.
- F.* Business ethics.
 1. The value of politeness and courtesy.
 2. The value of a square deal to employer, employee, and customer.
 3. Honesty with regard to goods, money, and service.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How would you modify the usual elementary courses in hygiene and arithmetic so as to make them applicable for use in adult immigrant classes?

2. Outline a series of lessons on the organization of the United States government which could be used in an advanced class.

3. Prepare a short unit course in citizenship training. Show what principles have guided you in the selection of subject matter. Criticize your course, pointing out its strong and its weak points.

4. Outline a plan of coöperation between the school and the naturalization authorities in the matter of citizenship training.

5. Discuss methods for preparing a class for naturalization.

6. To what extent ought we to encourage foreigners to take out naturalization papers?

7. What are the advantages of naturalization to the foreigner?

8. What suggestions can you offer for the vitalization of history?

9. Outline a lesson in history, stressing cause and effect. Indicate the method to be used in presenting this lesson.

10. Plan a lesson for advanced students designed to bring out the influence of geography on history.

11. Name the most important geographic topics to be included in the beginners' course. Upon what do you base your opinion?

12. Show how local industries, transportation, and local geography may be utilized by the teacher of adult immigrants.

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CHAPTER XI

WOMEN'S CLASSES

Need for women's classes. The problem of the immigrant woman is receiving greater interest and attention than ever before, for several reasons :

1. The passage of the Cable Act of September 22, 1922, makes it necessary for foreign-born women to secure their citizenship independently of their husbands.

2. The independent political status of women gives them the right to vote when citizenship is attained. Consequently, it is essential in a democracy that voting should be done intelligently.

3. The recognition of the needs of immigrant women as separate and distinct from those of immigrant men.

4. The hesitancy of immigrant women in seeking an education, due largely to prejudice and tradition.

5. The foreign-born mother must keep pace with her husband and children in acquiring a knowledge of the language, manners, and customs of the United States, if her home is to continue to function as a social unit.

6. The lack of contacts between foreign-born women and English-speaking people, due to their ignorance of the language.

7. The rearing of children and the kind of home are largely in the hands of the women.

8. The children's loss of respect for their parents. The

mother does not understand fully the English of the children. The children do not comprehend adequately the vernacular of the mother. This situation results quite frequently in juvenile delinquency.

9. The inability of the mother to coöperate fully with the school relative to the progress made by her children.

10. The inability of the woman to transact business in English.

11. The woman's disadvantage in the full enjoyment of her leisure.

These factors point out clearly the need of remedying the conditions that now exist and emphasizing the Americanization of the immigrant women. Too little attention has been paid to them in the past. They have not been entirely welcome when they entered a class composed largely of men. Part of this is due to the attitude common among many foreigners, namely, that women need no education. Such prejudice, it is true, gradually disappears after some years of residence in this country, but not until after considerable damage has been wrought. The mother has been neglected, her husband and children have grown away from her, and she has become suspicious and fearful of everyone and everything that is not characteristic of her racial group.

Reasons for teaching English to foreign-born women. The solution of the problem lies in education. The foreign-born mother needs a knowledge of English in order that she may preserve her place in the family and communicate with her husband and children in the new language. Such a knowledge will help her to keep the respect of her children and aid her

in preserving her influence over them. The opportunities of the foreign-born mother to become Americanized are very limited. The father has his industrial contacts in the community, the children have their school contacts, but the mother is often entirely without opportunities for contact with Americanizing influences. This is not as it should be; the entire family should be educated simultaneously so that they may advance together and thus prevent one portion of the family growing away from the other.

Further than that, the mother will have an avenue opened to her for communication and association with English-speaking people outside her home. It is only through an acquaintance with the English language that the immigrant woman is enabled to become familiar with the institutions of the country and otherwise perform the duties and obligations of citizenship.

Two distinct groups. The two groups into which foreign-born women naturally fall further complicates the problem. The first, the women in the home, has been discussed. They retain the language, customs, manners, and sometimes the dress of their native country. The second group, those who enter the industries and occupations, are usually the daughters of immigrants. They soon cast aside the foreign manners and customs and readily acquire some knowledge of English. The members of this group often seek an education of their own accord. This often entails considerable difficulty because old world tradition denies them the privilege of spending the evening away from home. The solution of the problem is through

the education of the parents, in the evening school for the father, in the home and neighborhood classes for the mother.

The larger problem is that of the foreign-born mother who spends her day in the home. The woman in industry will progress in spite of the restrictions that may be imposed upon her. The regular evening classes do not meet the needs of the foreign-born mother, not because they cannot, but on account of the conditions that exist in the homes of the foreigners. The large families characteristic of foreign nationalities make it almost impossible for the mother to be absent for a period of two to three hours. The few mothers who do find ways and means of getting free for the required length of time constitute a small minority in the evening school classes. They find a vocabulary unsuited to their needs and soon drop out.

The solution of the problem. If the evening schools are to be of real service to the foreign women, it will be necessary to establish classes exclusively for them, where the subject matter is more adapted to their needs and interests. Greater success has been attained, especially with beginning students, through the establishment of home and neighborhood classes. How, when, and where such classes should be organized lies beyond the scope of this text. It is an administrative problem rather than one for the teacher. Suffice to say that such classes may be held in the homes of the women, in community houses, or in the school during the day.

The advantages of day schools for foreign-born

women are quite apparent. The father is at work, and most of the children, if not all, are in school. Consequently, the mother is free to leave the home during this time. Philadelphia, among other cities, has organized day classes for mothers in the school buildings, together with kindergarten provisions for the care of very small children. This has resulted in securing a considerably greater attendance than would otherwise be possible. Dr. Weber, while Superintendent of Schools in Scranton, invited the foreign mothers to visit the kindergartens of the schools. The teachers of these classes interested the parents in the work, gave them elementary readers to look at, and invited them to return. The children's readers were soon withdrawn and other books more suited to the needs of adults substituted, with increased interest on the part of the parents. This experiment resulted in increased attendance in the evening schools, the mothers appearing there with their husbands.

The objectives in women's classes. While the broad objectives of Americanization remain constant regardless of the group being taught, there are special objectives relating to classes for women. Women should be taught:

1. To appreciate the value of a knowledge of English, by means of which they are enabled (*a*) to associate with persons outside their racial group, (*b*) to travel unaided throughout the city, (*c*) to read and understand signs, papers, and books.

2. To care for their homes by understanding simple rules of health and sanitation.

3. To care for their children by safeguarding their health, controlling their conduct, and understanding the new language that their children acquire.

4. To coöperate with the school by keeping their children in attendance and by understanding and complying with the school laws.

5. To enter actively into community life by understanding the meaning and duties of citizenship and by maintaining a high standard of living.

The teacher. The greatest difficulty encountered is in securing teachers thoroughly prepared to carry on the work. The qualifications for teachers, previously outlined, are of added importance if success is to be attained in the classes for women. The work requires unusual energy and enthusiasm, and calls for thoroughly trained teachers. They face many responsibilities other than that of teaching English, as is shown by the objectives. The greatest aim is to bring about closer coöperation between the school and the home.

The teacher should be of the same sex as the students. A woman will understand the problems of the foreign mother; she will gain her confidence and good will, and can quickly eliminate all reticence and restraint. It is apparent that in no other phase of Americanization work does teacher personality and attitude assume such vital importance. The teacher should be thoroughly familiar with the social and educational background of her students, their needs, their tribulations, and their hopes. She must be free from all racial and religious prejudices. She must be the

helpful teacher, the sympathetic adviser, and the affectionate friend. Her dominant desire should be that of service and her real compensation the sincere gratitude of her students.

The teacher who has not visited the congested foreign quarters of our large cities or the homes of the people can have but a slight conception of the limitations under which the foreign-born woman lives. Nothing can be taken for granted, not even the most common usages and customs found in the average American home. The home of the foreigner is generally overcrowded, and the prevalence of boarders further handicaps the housekeeper. In addition, there is usually a lack of adequate sanitary equipment and the presence of new housekeeping duties never dreamed of in the European environment. Thus it is that the foreign-born woman is confronted with difficulties and perplexities about which the native knows little.

Furthermore, poverty is quite frequent. There are no reserve funds to take care of misfortunes when they occur. Added to this are the changed duties of the mother with regard to the care of children, her inability to follow their progress in school, sometimes resulting in the breakdown of parental authority. These are but a few of the limitations that usually confront the foreign mother, and a recognition of them by the teacher is most essential to an adequate understanding of the problem.

It is highly important that each group of students should have the same teacher for an entire year. Teachers possessing the proper attitude toward the

work foster in the hearts of their students ties of friendship and affection that are not easily broken. Such relationships are greatly to be desired. A shifting of teachers results in duplication of work, necessitates the reestablishment of contact with students, and usually results in the loss of many of them.

Type of instruction. The educational background of immigrant women is usually negligible. The traditions of their home lands have not permitted them to secure much, if any, education. Consequently, they come to us with little or no training. An acquaintance with the previous educational background of the members of the class is a preliminary requisite to successful teaching. Since many of the students are illiterate, they cannot be expected to learn English rapidly. They should be introduced to the subject by means of oral, objective, and dramatized lessons. The subject matter should be such as will hold their interests and fit their needs. They require lessons on the care of the home, the preparation of food, care of babies and children, and school laws. They desire to learn our language in order that they may do their shopping, make out money orders, and travel without assistance. These lessons should include information concerning visits to the local health center and medical clinics, and should acquaint the mothers with the library, playground, and park. It must be remembered that while the students are to obtain useful information, the accomplishment of this can be assured only through the medium of English. All else must be recognized as subordinate.

Course of study for women's classes

A. General.

1. Writing name and address, and names of husband and children.
2. Forms of greeting.
3. Telling time.
4. Days, months, seasons.
5. Sections of the city.
6. Directions.
7. Number.
8. Colors.
9. Signs.
10. Travel.

B. The home.

1. Shelter.

- a.* Renting a house or flat — location, ventilation, sunlight, water, heat, rooms, fire prevention.
- b.* Refuse and garbage removal.
- c.* Keeping out mosquitoes and flies.
- d.* Rules of the Board of Health.
- e.* Activities of the home — sweeping, dusting, washing, setting the table, breakfast, dinner, supper.

2. Food.

- a.* Meals for the family.
- b.* Food for the invalid.
- c.* Canning and preserving.
- d.* Food for children.
- e.* General — fruits, vegetables, meat, fish, poultry.

3. Clothing.

- a.* Clothes for the baby.

- b.* Play clothes for children.
- c.* School clothes for children.
- d.* Materials and adaptability.
- e.* Sewing and tools.
- f.* Repair of clothing.
- g.* Laundering.

C. The child.

1. The baby.

- a.* Bathing the baby.
- b.* Weighing the baby.
- c.* Baby clinics and milk stations.
- d.* Care of the baby's milk and bottles.
- e.* Keeping the baby well.
- f.* Calling the doctor.
- g.* Teaching the baby to walk.
- h.* Clothes for the baby.
- i.* The baby nursery.

2. Older children.

- a.* Keeping children well.
- b.* The effect of diseased tonsils and adenoids.
- c.* Protection against contagious diseases.
- d.* Care of the sick child.
- e.* Home meals for school children.
- f.* Lunches for school children.
- g.* Children's bed time.
- h.* The school nurse.
- i.* The children's hospital.

D. The school.

- 1. Entering a child in school.
- 2. Visiting the school.
- 3. The school nurse.
- 4. The school doctor.
- 5. The children's report card.
- 6. The truant child.

E. The store and bank.

1. Money.
2. Marketing.
3. Measuring goods.
4. Weighing goods.
5. The peddler.
6. The bakery.
7. The grocery.
8. The butcher store.
9. The produce store.
10. The dairy.
11. The shoe store.
12. The department store.
13. The bank.
14. Banking situations.

F. The community.

1. Parks.
2. Playgrounds.
3. Libraries.
4. Museums.
5. The post office.
6. Hospitals and clinics.
7. The policeman.
8. The fireman.

G. Citizenship.

1. National holidays.
2. The flag.
3. Patriotic and folk songs.
4. Becoming a citizen.
5. Citizenship laws.
6. Privileges and obligations of citizenship.
7. America's famous men and women.
8. The meaning of democracy.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What factors have hindered the Americanization of foreign-born women?
2. Outline a course in English for mothers' classes. Indicate (a) the objectives, (b) the sources of lesson material, (c) the special problems presented by this type of class.
3. Write, in the order of their importance, ten themes suitable for mothers' classes.
4. Of what relative importance is the study of phonics, spelling, and written composition in mothers' classes? Defend your viewpoint.
5. Outline a group of lessons that may be used in preparing a mothers' class for naturalization.

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CHAPTER XII

THE USE OF TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

The value of testing. While there has been considerable progress in the preparation of tests and measurements for use in the elementary and high schools, little attempt has been made to apply scientific measures for grading adult foreigners and measuring the results of instruction. The testing material in use in the elementary schools is not entirely applicable to adult immigrant education. There is need for tests designed specifically for this purpose. Such tests would render a very useful service and be of value for the following reasons :

1. They would furnish a tangible and definite basis for grading students, thus eliminating the great variations in ability that now exist in individual classrooms in spite of all efforts to secure uniform grouping.

2. They would help the teacher to keep the definite teaching objectives clearly in mind and determine the extent to which these objectives were being attained.

3. They would greatly increase the efficiency of instruction by enabling the teacher to discover and remedy weaknesses in his work.

4. They would permit criticism and evaluation of methods employed.

5. They would serve as a means of motivating the work of the students by enabling them to measure their progress during the period between tests.

The number of tests that are of value in adult immigrant education, either for use in measuring intelligence, a knowledge of English, or the results of instruction, is limited. Many teachers and supervisors have undoubtedly developed tests which they find very useful within a class or school. The great service that these can render warrants their extensive distribution. It is not entirely essential that definite norms be established. If a test accomplishes the aim for which it was designed, and the aim is worth while, then its value is proved. The purpose of the test, the procedure for giving it, and the method of utilizing the results should accompany it.

The Delaware tests. A very good series of tests has been devised by the Bureau of Immigrant Education of the State of Delaware. There are three tests in the series, one each for beginning, intermediate, and advanced students. The contents of the test for non-English-speaking beginners include both oral and written exercises. Under the former there are subdivisions embracing oral reading; an understanding of signs, questions, and directions; oral themes testing conversation, and a knowledge of American laws and institutions. The written exercises are subdivided into spelling, composition, and dictation.

A Pantomime Group Intelligence Test. The author, Garry C. Myers, says of this test, "It is designed for use in schools where there is a large percentage of

foreign-born pupils and for the non-English-speaking adult of Americanization classes." The test consists of

1. Picture completion
2. Similarities with pictures
3. Completion of rhythmic forms
4. Discrimination of differences with pictures

Each test is explained by demonstration on a chart.

The Army Beta Test. This is a non-language test for measuring intelligence and consists of

1. Maze drawing
2. Cube analysis
3. X-O series
4. Digit-symbol
5. Number checking
6. Drawing completion
7. Geometrical construction

The procedure is explained by gesture and demonstration.

The Pintner Non-Language Test. This is designed to measure intelligence and consists of

1. Movement imitation
2. Simple digit-symbol test
3. Difficult digit-symbol test
4. Drawing completion
5. Reverse drawings
6. Picture reconstruction

The New York and Boston experiment. The experiment of greatest scope and suggestiveness is reported in "Schooling of the Immigrant," by Frank V. Thomp-

son. Here we have the first reported scientific attempt to measure oral and silent reading, English composition, spelling, and the ability to carry on conversation; to erect standards for grading pupils, measure the quality of instruction, test the results of supervision, and compare teaching methods.

The results obtained in this experiment, though not conclusive, point the way to further experimentation. The author tells us,

There was no time for the repeated trials and experimental modification essential to the production of true standard tests; on the other hand, the tests actually used have a suggestive value, as showing the type of work in test construction which is easily within the reach of any school system or teacher.

The summary of the author is also worth repeating.

The conclusion is that in the selection of suitable material, and in the organization of courses of study, measurements should be constantly used as an aid in determining what subject matter is of most worth. Choice of content should not be left to the eccentricities of textbook makers or to the passing and unchecked whims of the teacher. If the actual needs of the immigrant, as expressed in his own projects, are not to determine the work done, there should be careful evaluation by measurement of the difficulties of the subject matter used for class work.

Many other illustrations of the application of measurements to educational problems might be given, but those described above should make clear the chief functions of measurement in education. These may be summarized as follows: (1) Defining the goal or standards of instruction and evaluating subject matter in terms of these goals;

(2) measuring the abilities and needs with reference to the established standards; (3) determining, after an attempt has been made to bring about the desired changes, the degree of success achieved. On the basis of such testing, teaching and supervision can be intelligently directed, the most efficient methods selected, and the effectiveness of the educative process continually improved.

Basic difficulties in testing instruction. One who has had experience in measuring instruction in immigrant education will readily admit that many special difficulties are encountered. Sex, nationality, and length of time spent in this country should be taken into consideration in testing and measuring. Facts concerning the ages of students and their educational background should be ascertained; and, finally, one should be certain of a steady attendance without which testing is severely handicapped. The factors mentioned are vital in all measurement work in adult immigrant education, and a definite consideration of each is essential to valid results and conclusions.

Age. When an effort is being made to test a particular method or the progress of students in a given subject, the matter of age is of importance. Generally, the class having an average age of twenty has the advantage over the class with an average age of forty. The former will more readily acquire knowledge and be more receptive to teaching. Since grouping initially by age is rarely accomplished, the factor of age may result in creating a disturbing influence in any experiment designed to measure either method or progress.

Sex. Much experimentation has been carried on to

determine whether there are any essential differences in mentality and educational ability between the two sexes. Professor Bonsor, of Columbia University, in his thesis reported a wide investigation with school children but failed to discover any marked differences in mental ability. However, the matter of sex plays an important part in measurements with adult foreigners. Due to prejudice or custom, the women of many of our foreign groups have little or no educational background. To test a theory in method, for example, using two classes, one composed entirely of men and the other entirely of women, and with all other factors equal, is to initially favor the male class sufficiently to negate the results of the entire experiment. The safe procedure is to measure the female classes against female classes, male classes against male classes, or when using mixed groups, to use only those which show an equal distribution of the sexes.

Education in the native country. This is a very disturbing factor in testing and measuring the work of adult foreigners. There are no records accompanying the registrant. The teacher or supervisor must, of necessity, take the student's word for the amount of his previous training. Other factors being equal, the greater the amount of education acquired during the youth of the student, the greater will be his aptitude and speed in acquiring a knowledge of English. To carry on experiments in measurements without having ascertained the amount of the students' previous education is to overlook a condition of sufficient importance to invalidate results.

Education in the United States. Of importance, too, is the determination of the amount of schooling the student has had in this country. Theoretically at least, the ability of the student in his power to use English is directly proportionate to the amount of such training. Although in actual practice this condition does not always hold true, the factor of education in the United States must not be neglected.

Length of residence in the United States. It is a well-known fact that the majority of foreigners do not attend school but pick up their knowledge of English by mingling with English-speaking people on the streets and in their places of employment. The greater the length of time spent in this country the greater the incidental learning of English. It is therefore necessary to take this fact into consideration as a factor in experimentation.

Nationality. This is a factor of primary importance in measuring adult immigrant education. Foreign groups differ greatly in educational background, racial and cultural inheritance, and mental capability. To carry on an experiment to determine the relative efficiency of two factors in method used with classes the nationalities of which are widely divergent is to negate the experiment at the outset. The number of students of a given nationality must be approximately equal in each group, if reliable results are to be obtained.

Attendance. The lack of regular attendance in adult immigrant classes is probably the greatest obstacle in the path of the fruitful application of tests and measurements. Rarely do we find more than a very limited

number who are present throughout a period of experimentation. This is very well illustrated in the experiment reported in "Schooling of the Immigrant."¹

In New York the interval from the first test to the second was one month or twelve lesson periods. In Boston the interval was shorter — twenty-one days, or ten lesson periods. Yet in that short interval, if the figures for the two cities are combined, more than 40 per cent of those present for the first test were not present for the second, while of those who took the second test 20 per cent were new students.

Naturally, this condition, which is quite general, makes testing and measuring a very difficult procedure and often prevents the securing of any conclusive results.

The teacher and the problem. As has been stated elsewhere in this volume, the ultimate success or failure of the work rests with the classroom teacher. His class is a kingdom unto itself and presents a problem peculiar to itself. At best, there can be no adequate homogeneous grouping; individuals within the group will be more or less widely divergent as to interests and capabilities. In the light of these differences, what can the teacher do with tests and measurements that will aid him in his work and at the same time prove of value to his students? He can experiment along at least two lines — method and subject matter. The experiments described below are reproduced, not that they are of great value in themselves but because the procedure used may be suggestive.

¹ FRANK V. THOMPSON — *Schooling of the Immigrant*; Harper & Brothers, 1920.

An experiment in vocabulary control.¹ In preparing students for the naturalization examination it was thought desirable to teach such vocabulary as would be essential to a proper understanding of the subject matter. It was felt that the most economical and effective method of teaching this vocabulary would offer the best introduction to the subject, and save much valuable time. After much preliminary study and investigation, the following terms and expressions were decided upon as most essential:

A. Terms under Naturalization

1. Declaration of intention
2. Petition for naturalization
3. Preliminary hearing
4. Naturalization court
5. Naturalization examiner
6. Oath of allegiance

B. Terms under Fundamental Law

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. constitution | 3. preamble |
| 2. charter | 4. provisions |
| | 5. amendments |

C. Terms under Duties of Citizens

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1. defense | 5. obedience |
| 2. industry | 6. loyalty |
| 3. support | 7. voting |
| 4. service | 8. taxes |

D. Terms under Rights of Citizens

- | | |
|------------------|-------------|
| 1. safety | 3. assembly |
| 2. habeas corpus | 4. liberty |

¹ This experiment was carried out by the author under the direction and supervision of Dr. A. Duncan Yocum, Professor of Educational Research and Practice, in his seminar in Educational Research at the University of Pennsylvania.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------|
| 5. speech | 8. press |
| 6. trial by jury | 9. petition |
| 7. office holding | 10. religion |

II. voting

E. Terms under American Ideals

- | | |
|--------------|---------------|
| 1. industry | 4. allegiance |
| 2. democracy | 5. leadership |
| 3. education | 6. service |

F. Terms under Government

- | | |
|-----------|----------------|
| 1. town | 5. nation |
| 2. city | 6. legislative |
| 3. county | 7. executive |
| 4. state | 8. judicial |

G. Terms under Legislative

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. legislature | 10. forum |
| 2. Congress | 11. representative |
| 3. Senate | 12. senator |
| 4. House of
Representatives | 13. speaker |
| | 14. councilman |
| 5. department | 15. session |
| 6. council | 16. capital |
| 7. bureau | 17. powers |
| 8. committee | 18. bill |
| 9. congressman | 19. passage |
| | 20. laws |

H. Terms under Executive

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. cabinet | 5. governor |
| 2. departments | 6. mayor |
| 3. president | 7. inauguration |
| 4. vice president | 8. veto |

I. Terms under Judicial

- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| 1. supreme | 2. district |
|------------|-------------|

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| 3. circuit | 19. sentence |
| 4. superior | 20. acquittal |
| 5. municipal | 21. guilty |
| 6. criminal | 22. prosecution |
| 7. civil | 23. law |
| 8. jury | 24. decision |
| 9. chief justice | 25. suit |
| 10. judge | 26. trial |
| 11. magistrate | 27. cross examination |
| 12. foreman | 28. oath |
| 13. attorney | 29. testimony |
| 14. plaintiff | 30. verdict |
| 15. defendant | 31. fine |
| 16. lawbreaker | 32. discharge |
| 17. criminal | 33. appeal |
| 18. witness | 34. bail |

J. Terms under Suffrage

- | | |
|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. platform | 13. judge |
| 2. convention | 14. registrar |
| 3. nomination | 15. inspector |
| 4. campaign | 16. clerk |
| 5. Republican | 17. ward |
| 6. Democrat | 18. division |
| 7. Socialist | 19. registration |
| 8. politician | 20. general election |
| 9. nominee | 21. primary election |
| 10. appointee | 22. ballot |
| 11. voter | 23. poll tax |
| 12. candidate | 24. majority |
| | 25. plurality |

Method of presentation. Having selected the words to be taught, the question of the method of presentation became the next issue. Two classes were involved in

the experiment. The teacher of one group was given the list of words under such headings as legislative, executive, and judicial, and instructed to teach them, using the same methods ordinarily employed in similar work with a class, and to keep a detailed record of all procedures of method and devices employed. With the other group the teacher followed a definitely outlined plan of procedure for presenting the vocabulary. The assumption underlying the experiment was the belief that more effective and lasting results could be obtained if the greatest number of associations possible were definitely thought out beforehand, and the means of securing these associations were formulated before the actual teaching began, than if the teacher were to rely on the inspiration of the moment, as is often done in the classroom.

Selection of classes. An important point to be decided was the determination of the experimental class, that is, the class that was to be instructed on the basis of the definitely outlined procedure for teaching the vocabulary. Obviously, if the poorer of the two groups could be determined scientifically and was given the benefit of the detailed instruction and thereby showed the greater percentage of improvement, then detailed and definite procedure involving a maximum number of associations among the words to be taught would be proved to be preferable to unsystematic organization of methods and procedure. The determination of the experimental group involved the following steps:

A. A questionnaire was given in which the student was asked to state his age, sex, and nationality, the

length of time that he had lived in the United States, and the amount of education he had received in his native country and in the United States. The tabulation of the data secured from this questionnaire showed the following distribution :

GROUP A	Age	GROUP B
16-38	Age range	16-36
20	Median age	22
21	Average age	22
	<i>Sex</i>	
13	Male	13
10	Female	9
	<i>Education in native country</i>	
0-8	Range in years	3-15
6	Median	7
6	Average	7
	<i>Education in the United States</i>	
3-30	Range in months	1-30
12	Median	12
13	Average	11
	<i>Length of residence in the United States</i>	
3-264	Range in months	3-120
29	Median	27
38	Average	29
	<i>Nationality</i>	
10	Range	10
13	Mode (Russian)	10

These facts, a knowledge of which was necessary to determine the relative ability of the two groups, indi-

cated that there was not a significant variation between the two classes. The balance of favor, especially as regards to education in the native country, would seem to point to Group B as superior.

B. The Haggerty Intelligence Test, Delta 2, and the Myers' Pantomime Group Intelligence Test were given. Neither test, it was felt, measured adequately the intelligence of the students. They served a very useful purpose, however, in permitting a comparison of classes. The results of both tests indicated that Group B was distinctly superior.

HAGGERTY INTELLIGENCE TEST, DELTA 2

GROUP A		GROUP B
11-72	Range of scores	23-87
35	Median	53
22	First quartile	42
42	Third quartile	70

PANTOMIME TEST

17-45	Range of scores	24-46
32	Median	35.5
23.5	First quartile	31
35.5	Third quartile	38.5

C. A basal test (see appendix) was formulated to serve as a yardstick to measure the improvement of the students. It was given initially before the period of instruction and again at the close of the period of experimentation, thirty minutes being allowed at each testing. The following are the results of the initial testing.

GROUP A		GROUP B
0-35	Range of scores	4-63
6	Median	19.5
0	First quartile	12.5
14	Third quartile	27.5

On the basis of the combined data, Group A was selected as the experimental class to receive the detailed vocabulary instruction, and Group B as the controlled group to receive instruction in the same vocabulary as the teacher chose to present it.

The period of instruction. Both teachers involved in the experiment were rated as excellent by the principal of the school and the supervisor of Americanization. The teacher of the experimental group adhered closely to the prepared form of presentation throughout the entire period. The teacher of the controlled group used a variety of forms of presentation, including at times methods and devices employed in the experimental group, although there was no consistency shown in the utilization of these methods at all possible opportunities. There was a constant shifting from the question and answer method of developing an understanding of the terms to the development of a particular term from a more general one. Apparently no conscious effort was made to secure the greatest possible number of associations. The chart (see appendix) shows some of the methods and devices employed in the experimental class.

The period of experimentation was limited to five weeks or fifteen nights, fifteen minutes per evening, from 8:35 to 8:50 P.M. Each lesson period of fifteen

minutes was divided into five minutes of review and ten minutes for the presentation of the new lesson.

Results of the final test. In the short interval of five weeks between the initial and final tests, combining the two classes, forty-three per cent of those who took the first test were not present for the second, while of those who took the second test twenty-three per cent had not taken the first. Twenty-two persons in Group A and twenty in Group B took the first test, but only twelve in each group took both the first and second. The actual pupil-hour attendance of those who took both tests was so nearly alike in the two groups that the assumption may be made that both groups received the same number of hours of instruction.

COMPARISON OF SCORES IN BASAL TEST

GROUP A			GROUP B		
<i>Pupil</i>	<i>Test 1</i>	<i>Test 2</i>	<i>Pupil</i>	<i>Test 1</i>	<i>Test 2</i>
1	24	44	1	63	121
2	22	32	2	34	51
3	14	23	3	33	41
4	14	21	4	31	51
5	13	23	5	29	51
6	13	15	6	26	41
7	12	14	7	18	23
8	5	42	8	17	20
9	4	30	9	17	24
10	0	21	10	16	32
11	0	7	11	13	23
12	0	1	12	10	21

	NUMBER PUPILS	COMBINED SCORES — INITIAL	COMBINED SCORES — FINAL	DIFFERENCE	PER CENT DIFFERENCE
Controlled Group	12	307	499	192	62.5
Experimental Group	12	121	273	152	125.6
Experimental Group		— 186	— 226	— 40	+ 63.1

Conclusion. Had several hundred students taken part in the entire experiment instead of twenty-four, then the results obtained would be valid and of definite significance. It is of value, nevertheless, in pointing out the necessary procedure in testing, and the precautions essential to validity. The experiment suggests the value of definitely formulated methods and supervision as against the ordinary procedure of merely requiring the teacher to do his best.

A study of the writing vocabulary of advanced students. A second investigation was carried on to discover what information of value to the teacher could be secured by means of an analysis of a set of written papers. For this purpose the writing of an original composition was assigned to two advanced classes. The following topics were selected by the students:

Experiences in America	17
Why I came to America	6
Personal biography	4
Voyage to America	4
Description of an incident	2

Letter — application for position	2
Letter — expressing thanks	1
Reproduction of a story	1
Traveling in the United States	1
School experiences	1
George Washington	1
Value of health	1
Description of Fairmount Park	1
Value of education	1

The choice of topics shows the great interest students take in telling about their varied experiences in America. This fact is of value to the teacher as a proof of the advisability of starting discussion and teaching new material by utilizing the experiences of his students. The teacher should realize that there is always present in the minds of his class a great wealth of interesting incidents and a keen desire to relate them. Though their power of expression often may be very limited and inadequate, the teacher will always find an eagerness on the part of his students to tell, as best they can, all that they have experienced. The efficient teacher will take cognizance of these facts and thereby stimulate his students to renewed and increased effort.

Vocabulary employed. The number of words used by the forty-three students totalled 7974, the number of different words 1148, and the number of words used five or more times, 267. The following is a tabulation of the frequencies of words used five or more times, their location in the Thorndike Word Book, and the number of times each word was misspelled.

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
I	468	100-200	
to	390	0-100	2
the	389	0-100	
and	319	0-100	2
a	199	0-100	
in	190	0-100	
was	138	0-100	2
of	116	0-100	2
my	116	0-100	2
is	93	0-100	1
that	90	0-100	1
for	88	0-100	
when	73	0-100	
you	71	0-100	2
school	70	200-300	
me	69	0-100	
we	69	0-100	
it	64	0-100	
he	63	0-100	
America	62	1000-1500	2
came	60	100-200	2
but	57	0-100	2
not	56	0-100	2
country	54	200-300	6
have	54	0-100	1
am	53	300-400	1
they	51	0-100	
very	51	0-100	3
had	49	0-100	1
with	44	0-100	1

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
go	43	0-100	
work	43	0-100	
went	42	300-400	1
this	42	0-100	2
on	42	0-100	
because	39	1000-1500	13
so	38	0-100	5
all	37	0-100	
there	35	0-100	1
like	33	0-100	2
his	32	0-100	
now	31	0-100	
years	31	0-100	2
day	30	0-100	
about	30	0-100	1
as	29	0-1 0	1
good	29	0-100	
people	29	100-200	1
are	27	0-100	
did	26	100-200	
them	25	0-100	
then	25	0-100	
where	25	0-100	2
out	24	0-100	2
after	24	0-100	2
one	23	0-100	
took	23	400-500	2
what	23	0-100	
your	23	0-100	1
English	22	500-1000	3

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
him	22	0-100	
two	22	0-100	1
an	21	0-100	
city	21	100-200	
how	21	0-100	
see	21	0-100	
time	21	0-100	
will	21	0-100	
which	21	0-100	
write	21	300-400	1
do	20	0-100	
more	20	0-100	2
father	20	100-200	1
no	20	0-100	1
our	20	0-100	2
some	20	0-100	
could	19	100-200	1
get	19	100-200	
going	19	500-1000	1
here	19	0-100	
left	19	100-200	1
man	18	0-100	
would	17	0-100	2
by	17	0-100	
can	17	0-100	1
old	17	0-100	
us	17	100-200	1
dear	16	300-400	
learn	16	200-300	
year	16	0-100	

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
citizen	15	1500-2000	3
first	15	100-200	1
got	15	400-500	3
night	15	100-200	
three	15	100-200	1
were	15	0-100	
next	14	200-300	
until	14	200-300	
take	14	0-100	
tell	14	100-200	
said	14	100-200	
ship	14	300-400	
she	14	200-300	
before	14	0-100	1
know	14	0-100	5
world	13	100-200	2
every	13	0-100	
if	13	0-100	
money	13	200-300	2
saw	13	200-300	
told	13	500-1000	
well	12	0-100	1
why	12	100-200	1
at	12	0-100	
feel	12	300-400	3
her	12	0-100	
job	12	3000-3500	
letter	12	300-400	
language	12	2000-2500	2
mother	12	200-300	

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
over	12	0-100	
weeks	11	400-500	
week	11	400-500	
also	11	100-200	2
best	11	200-300	
come	11	0-100	
educated	11	5500-6000	5
friend	11	200-300	2
home	11	100-200	
package	11	3000-3500	
thing	11	0-100	
send	11	200-300	
beautiful	10	0-100	3
didn't	10	3000-3500	5
gave	10	300-400	
government	10	500-1000	1
live	10	100-200	
long	10	0-100	1
land	10	100-200	
many	10	0-100	1
new	10	0-100	
only	10	0-100	2
use	10	100-200	
up	10	0-100	
teacher	10	500-1000	1
sorry	10	2000-2500	1
started	10	400-500	3
start	10	400-500	1
American	9	500-1000	
better	9	200-300	1

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
brother	9	300-400	
coming	9	500-1000	2
want	9	200-300	2
who	9	0-100	
right	9	100-200	2
must	9	100-200	1
nation	9	500-1000	
other	9	0-100	
put	9	100-200	
days	9	0-100	
way	8	0-100	
been	8	0-100	
child	8	300-400	
children	8	300-400	1
stopped	8	200-300	5
person	8	400-500	1
parents	8	2000-2500	2
much	8	0-100	2
made	8	200-300	
or	8	0-100	
living	8	100-200	2
later	8	200-300	1
little	8	0-100	
glad	8	400-500	2
hope	8	300-400	
I'll	8	1500-2000	4
down	8	100-200	
education	8	2000-2500	2
everything	8	500-1000	
free	8	300-400	

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
don't	7	500-1000	3
different	7	500-1000	2
family	7	400-500	1
you	7	200-300	1
happy	7	300-400	
life	7	100-200	1
learned	7	200-300	
last	7	100-200	1
morning	7	200-300	
most	7	100-200	1
months	7	400-500	1
make	7	0-100	
never	7	200-300	1
papers	7	300-400	
something	7	300-400	3
since	7	200-300	
soldiers	7	400-500	
too	7	100-200	1
uncle	7	500-1000	1
any	7	0-100	
become	7	300-400	
barber	7	4000-4500	
working	7	0-100	1
yet	6	200-300	
whole	6	200-300	2
big	6	300-400	
back	6	100-200	1
born	6	500-1000	1
boy	6	100-200	
asked	6	300-400	

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD LIST	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
used	6	100-200	2
try	6	200-300	
till	6	400-500	2
think	6	100-200	1
thought	6	200-300	
say	6	100-200	
still	6	100-200	2
state	6	200-300	
read	6	200-300	
park	6	1000-1500	
nice	6	500-1000	
name	6	100-200	
met	6	500-1000	
knew	6	500-1000	
large	6	100-200	
give	6	100-200	
grade	6	1500-2000	1
has	6	100-200	1
heard	6	500-1000	2
hard	6	200-300	1
everybody	6	1500-2000	
February	6	1500-2000	
found	6	100-200	3
find	6	100-200	
died	5	200-300	
decided	5	500-1000	
experienced	5	1000-1500	
five	5	200-300	
girl	5	200-300	
health	5	500-1000	

WORD	FREQUENCY	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK	NUMBER OF TIMES MISSPELLED
I'm	5	1500-2000	
into	5	0-100	
matter	5	200-300	1
myself	5	500-1000	1
mind	5	300-400	
may	5	100-200	
number	5	200-300	
own	5	100-200	
opportunity	5	500-1000	2
place	5	0-100	1
present	5	200-300	
port	5	1000-1500	
soon	5	100-200	
sister	5	400-500	
story	5	400-500	
sent	5	400-500	
than	5	0-100	
teachers	5	500-1000	
union	5	1000-1500	
answer	5	300-400	2
arrived	5	500-1000	
bad	5	400-500	
books	5	100-200	
building	5	500-1000	
worked	5	0-100	
wait	5	400-500	1
young	5	200-300	1

SUMMARY

NUMBER OF WORDS	PLACE IN THORNDIKE WORD BOOK
100	0-100
47	100-200
36	200-300
20	300-400
18	400-500
25	500-1000
6	1000-1500
6	1500-2000
4	2000-2500
3	3000-3500
1	4000-4500
1	5500-6000

A study of this compilation shows a very high correlation between the frequency of words used in the forty-three compositions and those in the Thorndike Word Book. Seventy of the first one hundred words in the composition list are found in Thorndike's first hundred. The remaining thirty are included in the other 167 words. The value of using the Thorndike Word Book as a source of spelling and vocabulary material becomes apparent. It is likewise proof of the fact that the written work of the students is a reliable source for teaching material.

Parts of speech used. A study of the distribution of the same words among the various parts of speech has special value for the teacher in showing how words are used, and indicating where stress should be placed. It also emphasizes the relative importance of each word within a given part of speech.

PRONOUNS

I	486	they	51	she	14
my	116	his	32	her	12
you	71	them	25	who	9
me	69	your	23	I'll	8
we	69	him	22	I'm	5
it	64	our	20	myself	5
he	63	us	17		

NOUNS

school	70	home	11	uncle	7
America	62	package	11	barber	7
country	54	thing	11	boy	6
years	31	government	10	state	6
day	30	land	10	park	6
people	29	teacher	10	grade	6
English	22	brother	9	everybody	6
city	21	nation	9	February	6
time	21	days	9	girl	5
father	20	way	8	health	5
man	18	child	8	matter	5
year	16	children	8	mind	5
citizen	15	person	8	number	5
night	15	parents	8	opportunity	5
ship	14	living	8	place	5
world	13	education	8	present	5
money	13	everything	8	port	5
job	12	family	7	sister	5
letter	12	life	7	story	5
language	12	morning	7	teachers	5
mother	12	months	7	union	5
weeks	11	paper	7	answer	5
week	11	something	7	books	5
friend	11	soldier	7	building	5

VERBS

was	138	take	14	working	7
is	93	tell	14	born	6
came	60	said	14	asked	6
have	54	know	14	used	6
am	53	told	13	try	6
had	49	saw	13	think	6
go	43	feel	12	thought	6
work	43	come	11	say	6
went	42	send	11	read	6
like	33	didn't	10	met	6
are	27	gave	10	knew	6
did	26	live	10	give	6
took	23	use	10	has	6
see	21	started	10	heard	6
will	21	start	10	found	6
write	21	must	9	find	6
do	20	coming	9	died	5
could	19	want	9	decided	5
going	19	been	8	experienced	5
get	19	stopped	8	may	5
left	19	made	8	own	5
would	17	hope	8	sent	5
can	17	don't	7	arrived	5
learn	16	learn	7	worked	5
got	15	make	7	want	5
were	15	become	7		

PREPOSITIONS

to	390	after	24	up	10
in	190	by	17	down	8
of	116	until	14	since	7
for	88	before	14	till	6
with	44	at	12	into	5
on	42	over	12		

CONJUNCTIONS

and	319	as	29	for	8
but	57	if	13	than	5
because	39				

ARTICLES

the	389	a	199	an	21
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ADJECTIVES

that	90	every	13	different	7
this	42	best	11	few	7
all	37	educated	11	happy	7
good	29	beautiful	10	last	7
one	23	long	10	most	7
what	23	many	10	any	7
two	22	new	10	whole	6
which	21	sorry	10	big	6
more	20	American	9	nice	6
some	20	better	9	same	6
no	20	right	9	large	6
old	17	other	9	hard	6
dear	16	much	8	light	6
first	15	little	8	five	5
three	15	glad	8	bad	5
next	14	free	8	young	5

ADVERBS

when	73	where	25	just	9
not	56	out	24	later	8
very	51	how	24	never	7
so	38	here	19	too	7
there	35	well	12	yet	6
now	31	why	12	back	6
about	30	also	11	still	6
then	25	only	10		

Spelling. Of the entire group of 7974 words used, only 460 were misspelled, a spelling efficiency of 94 per cent. The errors found on individual papers present many points of interest to the teacher showing the specific needs of the various individuals in the class and the necessity of individual instruction. An investigation of the causes of errors disclosed four sources:

1. Errors due to spelling difficulties inherent in the words themselves, *e.g. ie, ei*, the final silent *e*, etc.
2. Errors due to the students endeavoring to spell the words phonetically, *e.g. scool, tim* (time), etc.
3. Errors due to distinct racial foreignisms, as seen in the substitution of letters and in vowel difficulties.
4. Errors due to mispronunciations which had become fixed habits and had evidently not been corrected by the teacher.

In the summary below, the errors are classified according to the racial origin of the two major groups:

CLASSIFICATION OF MISSPELLED WORDS — ITALIAN STUDENTS

PHONETIC SPELLING	MISPRONUN- CIATIONS	FOREIGNISMS	SPELLING DIFFICUL- TIES
<i>13, or 20%</i>	<i>1, or 2%</i> finely (finally)	<i>8, or 12%</i> intent (intend) medeum (medium) firsd (first) devided (divided) tink (think) pasted (passed) hade (had) quite (quit)	<i>44, or 66%</i>

CLASSIFICATION OF MISSPELLED WORDS — JEWISH STUDENTS

PHONETIC SPELLING	MISPRONUN- CIATIONS	FOREIGNISMS	SPELLING DIFFICUL- TIES
<i>93, or 24%</i>	<i>17, or 4%</i> citizens (citizens) inportant (important) listenet (listened) childeren (children) olderst (oldest) ony (only) plenny (plenty) blev (believe) are (our) etc.	<i>63, or 16%</i> starded (started) advenced (advanced) twelf (twelve) fater (father) live (leave) trevel (travel) worlt (world) sametink (something) steel (still) chence (chance) ged (get) metter (matter) efter (after) wery (very) samting (something) lefen (laughing) eneting (anything) wit (with) sheep (ship) vas (was) vinder (window) monts (months) etc.	<i>221, or 56%</i>

This summary emphasizes the need of clear and distinct enunciation on the part of teachers and students. It points out very clearly, also, the need of corrective work in phonics, and a study by the teacher of the various foreignisms likely to be encountered, together with careful planning of instruction to eradicate them.

Structural errors. All compositions were very carefully examined to ascertain the number and kind of structural errors made. The following tabulation shows the results of this portion of the investigation. The study of these errors is of great value to the teacher in defining clearly the weaknesses of the class, both as a group and as individuals. It enables the teacher to plan definitely for the elimination of the errors made, to concentrate on all points of weakness, to place stress where needed, and to help each student to overcome such prevalent errors as his composition may show.

TABULATION OF STRUCTURAL ERRORS

General

Sentence and paragraph structure	22 compositions
Punctuation	25 compositions
Capitalization	25 compositions

Specific

	NO. OF ERRORS
Pronouns — personal	1
relative	10
Nouns — possessive case	2
plurals	8
Verbs — tense	81
agreement of subject and predicate	7
infinitive	6
Prepositions — in	4
for	2
with	3
of	9
on	3
by	2
to	5
from	4
omission of preposition	11

may be given in the form of group instruction. The major portion of the time will eventually, however, be devoted to individual help. Students having difficulty with word order can be furnished with mimeographed copies of drills aiming to correct such faults. In like manner, other lessons may be prepared to fit the needs of the students as they are discovered, until an entire series has been built to meet the needs of any situation that may arise.

Thompson, in the work quoted previously, gives his conception of the Utopia in immigrant education in the following words :

The one way out of the difficulty is the devising of forms of classroom administration which will permit of adjustment of teaching to individual differences without destroying the mass formation.

It is precisely this which the "unit-task method" of instruction does. A man can learn to write his name and address without learning to write in general ; he can learn enough English to buy a railroad ticket without learning to speak the entire English language. He can learn to read the signs in a post office well enough to take a money order to the proper window without learning to read all the signs he sees. And the proper filling out of the same money order makes an ideal writing lesson for evening-school work. The unit-task method enables the evening school to capitalize the immigrant's desire to learn and each of his subsequent successes ; it enlists his aid in teaching himself.

The essential elements of individual instruction are two : First, the lessons or tasks or projects must each be an achievement complete in itself — hence the name "unit-

task method"; second, the instruction necessary for the assistance of the individual must be in such form that the individual can for the most part teach himself by following them. Even here, however, the assistance of the teacher will be needed occasionally, for this man at one point, for that man at another; but after the initial stage has been passed one teacher can give individual assistance to a large group.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Show the need and value of standards of achievement in adult immigrant education.
2. Some facts in every lesson are of more value than others. How would you determine the relative values?
3. Formulate an experiment to prove the value of objective material in teaching.
4. Formulate an experiment to test the value of phonics in relation to reading. Use two classes, in one of which phonic instruction is given.
 - a. What precautions would you take in selecting the two groups?
 - b. How would you decide which of the two classes should receive the phonic instruction?
 - c. Devise a test in reading to measure the relative abilities of the two classes at the end of the period of experimentation.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE SELECTION OF TEXTBOOKS

Older criteria. Quite frequently in the past, the deciding factor in the selection of a text has been the persuasive powers of the book agent. Other considerations that have had much weight have been the prestige of the author, the general appearance of the book, the cost of the text, and the quantity of sales that the book has had. None of these factors is of major importance. An author may have a broad and thorough knowledge of the subject, possess considerable ability as a student or teacher in a given field, and at the same time be unable to formulate a textbook that will be suited to the type of class for which he intends it.

The person upon whom the selection of a text devolves frequently has time for only a cursory examination of books proposed for use. This rarely permits of an adequate judgment as to the content, organization, and spirit of the text.

Need of adequate criteria. Until adequate criteria for evaluating textbooks are definitely formulated, progress in the efficient selection of them will be slow. Standards are just as important in this as in the selection of teachers or in the erection of new school buildings. Steps have been taken toward formulating bases for such evaluation, and the not too distant future

holds promise of considerable development in the scientific selection of textbooks.

Such development is taking the form of a score card containing the essential features that should be found in a text, with a value or weight given each item. Just what proportion of the total worth of a text should be given to any particular item is a moot question and will, perhaps, long remain so. The subjective opinions of those evaluating texts will always vary. However, more definiteness and accuracy are attainable if an arbitrary value is given each criterion. These weights should reflect the relative importance of the criteria.

Bases for criteria. The first and, possibly, the most important consideration for evaluating a text is a thorough knowledge of the objectives of the course of study for which the selection is to be made. The degree to which the objectives of the text coincide with those of the course will determine the probable usefulness and value of the text as an aid in teaching. A second consideration is a knowledge of the elements of a book that should be given weight in evaluating it, to differentiate the essential features from those of less importance.

SCORE CARD FOR EVALUATING ADULT IMMIGRANT TEXTS

Title.....
Author (s).....
Publisher.....
Date of publication.....
Designed for use in teaching.....

	BEGINNERS	INTERMEDIATES	ADVANCED
English			
Geography			
Civics			
Citizenship			
History			

(Place check in the appropriate spaces above.)

	MAX. VALUE
1. Experience of the author in the field	3
2. Textbook based on	
<i>a.</i> Experience	2
<i>b.</i> Experimentation	2
<i>c.</i> Study (theory)	1
3. Objectives of the author in accord with the objectives of the course of study	8
4. Method of presentation psychologically sound	5
5. Style (interest to students)	10
6. Content	
<i>a.</i> Value to students	10
<i>b.</i> Adaptation to ability of students	8
<i>c.</i> Vocabulary	
(1) Degree of difficulty	3
(2) Repetition of words and idioms	3
(3) Number of new words in each lesson	3
(4) Gradation in difficulty	3
(5) Provisions for building vocabulary	3
<i>d.</i> Review assignments	3
<i>e.</i> Reliability and accuracy of material	3
<i>f.</i> Elimination of prejudices and hatreds	3

7.	Provisions for varying types of teaching	6
8.	Aids to teaching	
a.	Questions and problems	4
b.	Suggestions helpful to teacher	6
9.	Illustrations	
a.	Pertinent	2
b.	Captioned	2
c.	Correctly located in text	2
10.	Mechanical make-up	
a.	Size of book	1
b.	Binding	1
c.	Paper (quality and finish)	1
d.	Type (size and spacing)	2

Details of evaluation.

1. The experience of the author may be limited, considerable, or very extended.

2. A text may be based entirely on teaching experience ; it may be the result of experimentation ; it may be a purely theoretical text based on a study of the problem without actual experience, or it may be a combination of several of these.

3. The extent to which the objectives of the author coincide with those of the course of study can be determined only by means of a study of the contents of the text. If the book is to be used as a basic text, there should be considerable accord between the two sets of objectives ; a supplementary text would require less conformity.

4. The subject matter should not only be selected on the basis of the interests and needs of the students but should also be presented in a manner that is psychologically sound. A beginners' text, for example, that introduces

the subject by the use of "This is ——" and "That is ——," and continues to use the device for developing vocabulary instead of employing the theme method, cannot be considered as presenting the subject in the most effective manner. Neither does the text that lends itself best to the indirect method of teaching a language, or is based on the grammatical construction of language, follow a method of presenting the subject matter that is of greatest value in adult immigrant education.

5. A purely subjective measure of a textbook, but one that is worthy of consideration, is its style. A text may have a sound psychological presentation; it may be well adapted to the abilities of the students and be accurate in its statements; yet it may fail to be interesting, attractive, and stimulating.

6. (a) Determination of the value of the content to the students necessitates a study of the subject matter of each lesson. If the purpose of the text is to increase the students' knowledge of English, the thought content should not deal with fairies and buttercups but should be more pertinent to the needs of the students. In like manner, a civics text should concern itself not so much with the structural form of government as with the benefits derived from our form of government and how each individual may and should contribute his share to furthering the purposes and ideals for which our democracy stands.

(b) Reference should be made to the purpose for which the text was designed in considering the degree to which it is adapted to the abilities of the students. The objectives, method, and content will vary considerably, depending on whether the text is for beginners, intermediates, or advanced students.

(c) The vocabulary used in a text on any phase of immigrant education is very important. A book may score

high in most items of evaluation but fail utterly on this point. Here, again, reference must be made to the type of class for which the text was prepared. The vocabulary may be too difficult or too easy, there may be an insufficient repetition of new words and idioms, the number of new words introduced in any one lesson may be too great, and the new words may not be graded according to difficulty. Further, there should be provision for building up a vocabulary, and for getting the correct pronunciation of new words.

(d) Review assignments form an important element in the types of text under consideration. The number of such reviews will depend upon the phase of the subject and the form of presentation. The maximum number of lessons between reviews should follow the principles discussed in the chapter on the learning process.

(e) Authors of texts for adult immigrants, in their endeavor to present lessons in very simple English, frequently distort the facts. Care should be taken, when examining a text, that all facts, particularly those pertaining to history and civics, are accurate.

(f) Extreme care should be exercised to avoid the selection of texts for use with adult immigrants that contain any statements or illustrations that might be inclined to arouse or prolong racial hatreds, religious prejudices, sectional feelings, or national antipathies.

7. A text should permit of variety in methods of teaching and should not be designed for use in connection with any one particular type of procedure. Repetitions of one or two methods soon result in a loss of interest.

8. The value of a text should be measured in part by the assistance it renders the teacher in making the lessons effective. Such aids are found in the form of questions and problems for students, and suggestions for the teacher.

The quality of such assistance is even more important than the quantity.

9. No text designed for the use of adult immigrants can be considered complete if lacking in illustrations. Not only should there be illustrations, but there should be an abundance of them. A profusely illustrated text will make a stronger appeal, arouse more interest, and give better results than a text meager in illustrations. Such material should be pertinent, well captioned, and correctly located in the text. Illustrations should be so placed that they may be viewed when the portion of the text to which they apply is being read or studied.

10. Perhaps the least important element in evaluating a textbook, yet one that is deserving of some consideration, is its mechanical make-up. A combination of all the factors that enter into the mechanical construction of a text lend to its attractiveness and determine, to some extent, the amount of wear and tear to which it may be subjected and the use that may be made of it. A text should be of a size to permit easy handling and ready use; the binding should be sufficiently strong and durable to allow a reasonable amount of handling; the paper used should not be too highly glossed or too poor to withstand much usage. The size of type and the spacing of words and lines should be such as to permit reading without eye strain.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

Criticize a textbook for use by adult immigrants, keeping the following questions in mind:

- a. What is the spirit of the book?
- b. Is it constructive?
- c. Are the contents in accordance with the purpose as outlined in the preface?

- d.* Is the subject matter interesting enough for the student to cause him to stick to his task?
- e.* Is the vocabulary suitably graded?
- f.* What assistance does the text give to the teacher?
- g.* What helps are given to the students?
- h.* What provisions are made for reviews and drills?
- i.* Are the students helped by mechanical arrangements of pictures and summaries?

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

THE MOST PREVALENT FOREIGNISMS

(Tabulated According to Nationality)

	GERMANS	BOHEMIANS	HUNGARIANS	SCANDINAVIANS	SLAVS	JEWS	GREEKS	ITALIANS	SPANIARDS
Mispronunciations									
Long vowels									
<i>a, e, i, o, u, (y)</i> . . .					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Short vowels									
<i>a, e, i, o, u, (y)</i> . . .	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Consonants									
<i>g</i>						✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>h</i>					✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>k</i>						✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>ng</i>				✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
<i>oi</i>							✓	✓	✓
<i>ou</i>							✓	✓	✓
<i>ow</i>							✓	✓	✓
<i>sk</i> (final)								✓	✓
<i>st</i> (final)								✓	✓
<i>th</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Substitutions									
<i>d</i> for <i>th</i>						✓			
<i>p</i> for <i>b</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			
<i>v</i> for <i>wh</i> or <i>w</i> . . .	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			
<i>s</i> or <i>z</i> for soft <i>s</i> . .	✓	✓	✓	✓					
<i>f</i> or <i>d</i> for <i>th</i> . . .						✓			
<i>w</i> for <i>v</i>						✓			
<i>z</i> for <i>th</i>								✓	✓
<i>ch</i> for <i>c</i> (before <i>e</i> or <i>i</i>)								✓	✓
<i>sh</i> for <i>s</i> (initial) . .	✓	✓	✓						
Additions									
Sounding final <i>e</i> or <i>ed</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	
Sounding all vowels									
long, especially									
when final . . .	✓	✓	✓	✓					
Adding hard or soft									
sounds after words					✓				
Placing <i>h</i> before initial									
vowel						✓			
Omission or slurring of									
final consonants . .								✓	✓

APPENDIX B

BASAL TEST

Exercise 1.

Place the letter *R* before words showing the rights of citizens.

Place the letter *D* before words that stand for the duties of citizens.

Sample: *R* Freedom of religion

D Obedience to law

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Loyalty | 6. Freedom of press |
| 2. Liberty | 7. Defense of country |
| 3. Payment of taxes | 8. Industry |
| 4. Trial by jury | 9. Freedom of speech |
| 5. Service to country | 10. Voting |

Exercise 2.

When two words mean the opposite put an *x* mark before the two words.

Sample: fall — drop

x east — west

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. constitution — charter | 8. privilege — responsibility |
| 2. despotism — freedom | 9. mayor — governor |
| 3. town — city | 10. meeting — session |
| 4. executive — legislative | 11. rights — duties |
| 5. autocracy — democracy | 12. obedience — support |
| 6. liberty — authority | 13. judicial — interpreting |
| 7. guilty — acquitted | 14. plaintiff — defendant |
| 15. authority — individual rights | |

Exercise 3.

Look at this sentence :

The nose is a part of the legs, arms, head, feet.

The right word is *head* because it makes the truest sentence, therefore a line is drawn under it. In each of the sentences below you have four choices for the last word. Only one of them is correct. In each sentence draw a line under the one of these four words which makes the truest sentence.

1. An attorney is a policeman, doctor, lawyer, teacher.
2. A municipality is a hospital, city, band, state.
3. A criminal is a gentleman, lawbreaker, citizen, tailor.
4. A magistrate is a king, judge, mayor, councilman.
5. Loyalty means allegiance, revolution, strike, royalty.
6. A charter is a court, constitution, voting-place, prison.
7. A ward is a judge, hospital, jail, part of a city.
8. A poll tax is an animal, a stamp, license, ballot.
9. A platform is a plank, stage, box, plan.
10. A cabinet is a judge, radio set, furniture, executive body.

Exercise 4.

Look at the line below.

Day — night ; white — red, black, clear, pure.

Night means the opposite of day. What word means the opposite of white? Draw a line under it.

Below are some exercises like this. The first two words in each line are related to each other in some way. Draw a line under the word in big type that is related in the same way to the third word.

1. Captain — ship ; mayor — STATE COUNCIL
CITY BOSS
2. King — kingdom ; president — VICE PRESI-
DENT SENATE QUEEN REPUBLIC

3. Council — councilman ; senate — REPUBLICAN
CONGRESSMAN SENATOR JUDGE

4. Police — lawbreaker ; judge — PRISONER
CANDIDATE DEMOCRAT MAYOR

5. City — ward ; state — DIVISION CAPITAL
COUNTY DEPARTMENT

6. Appointment — appointee ; election — POLITI-
CIAN VOTER NOMINEE CANDIDATE

7. Autocracy — subject ; democracy — SLAVE
CITIZEN ROYALTY KING

8. Sentence — guilty ; acquittal — SUIT FINE
BAIL INNOCENCE

9. Labor union — meeting ; Congress — SESSION
QUORUM COMMITTEE BUREAU

10. Automobile — license ; voting — PLATFORM
BALLOT CLERK POLL TAX

Exercise 5.

In each of the paragraphs below there are a number of blank spaces. Fill in these blank spaces with the most suitable words.

1. Naturalization is the means by which a person who was born in a — country becomes a — of the United States. Such a person first fills out a statement called a — — —. After five years of residence in the United States a — — — is filled out. Then follows an examination in the — court, where the candidate for citizenship takes an — — — and obtains a — — —.

2. The law-making body of our nation is called —. It consists of a — and — — —. The members of these bodies are called — and —.

3. A criminal is placed on — in the —. The wit-

nesses tell under — what they know of the case. They are — — by the district attorney. The jury brings in a —.

Exercise 6.

(a)	(b)	
table — chair		You will notice two lists of words.
dark — light		The words in list (b) are thoughts that
black — white		were suggested by the words in list (a).
		Below you will find a list of words.
		Write opposite each word the thought
		it suggests to you.

1. police —
2. mayor —
3. amendment —
4. campaign —
5. vote —
6. plaintiff —
7. court —
8. democracy —
9. obedience —
10. councilman —

Exercise 7.

Think of the word *home*. It recalls to your mind — kitchen, bedrooms, walls, floor, ceiling, bed, table, etc.

Below you will find five words. Place after each word all the words that it recalls to your mind.

1. duty —
2. constitution —
3. naturalization —
4. court —
5. ballot —

APPENDIX C

SOME DEVICES FOR CONDUCTING THE EXPERIMENT IN VOCABULARY CONTROL

Suggesters	Association by Similarities
------------	-----------------------------

I	industry
D	industrious
E	industriousness
A	
L	democrat
S	democratic
	democracy
	educate
	education
	educational
	allegiance
	lead
	leader
	leadership
	serve
	service

L	legislate
E	legislature
J	legislative
	legislation
	legislator
	execute
	execution
	executive
	judge
	judgment
	judicial
	judiciary

Conspicuous Labelling**General Terms**

I ndustry
 D emocracy
 E ducation
 A llegiance
 L eadership
 S ervice

IDEALS



IDEALS

Steps in Good Citizenship

Government	1. town	legislative	GOVERNMENT
		executive	
		judicial	
	2. city	legislative	
		executive	
		judicial	
	3. county	legislative	
		executive	
		judicial	
	4. state	legislative	
		executive	
		judicial	
	5. nation	legislative	
		executive	
		judicial	

SOME DEVICES FOR CONDUCTING THE EXPERIMENT IN VOCABULARY CONTROL—*Continued*

Contrasts and Opposites

{ industry laziness }
 { activity inactivity }

{ democracy autocracy }
 { self government aristocracy }

{ education ignorance }
 { knowledge stupidity }

{ allegiance opposition }
 { loyalty disloyalty }

{ leadership misgovernment }
 { management mismanagement }

{ service hindrance }
 { support opposition }

nation — state
 state — county
 county — city (town)

APPENDIX D

PLAN OF PROCEDURE FOR FIRST SIX EVENINGS
 BEGINNERS' CLASS

First evening

1. Identification.

It is readily conceivable that many of the newly registered students will be ill at ease, nervous, or bewildered in their initial classroom experience. Much

will depend upon their first impressions. Too much cannot be said relative to the vital importance of a friendly, helpful attitude on the part of the teacher. He should greet each student who comes in, endeavoring to make the welcome an impressive one.

Having obtained the attention of the students, the teacher will point to himself and say slowly and distinctly, "My name is ——." This statement should be repeated several times so that the most intelligent members of the class can grasp its meaning. The teacher should then point to a student and ask, "What is your name?" If the student does not seem to understand, another should be asked, and the process continued until the correct answer is received. The name of each member of the class should be obtained in this manner.

The same device may be used to get a statement of residence from each student. The teacher points to himself and says, "I live at —— street." After several repetitions, a student is asked, "Where do you live?" The correct answer should be obtained from each student.

The value of subjective language was discussed in Chapter V. The need of its use in connection with the facts of identification and the theme that is to follow is fundamental. Encourage the students constantly with such words of approval as "Good," "Fine," "Right."

2. The development of the words *sit*, *stand*, and *walk*.

The teacher pointing to himself says, "I," and then, "sit," as he indicates his position while sitting. This

is repeated several times. He then asks, "What do I do?" As he goes through the actions the class answers, "Sit." The word is written on the board, read by the class, and dramatized by individuals who say the word as they perform the action. The words *stand* and *walk* are developed in like manner.

3. Theme.

I walk to the door.

I turn the knob.

I open the door.

I shut the door.

Follow the procedure for the use of the theme as given in Chapter V, using every power of dramatization, *e.g.*

I walk to the door.

I — teacher points to himself.

walk — teacher emphasizes the motion of walking, pointing to his feet.

to — teacher points in the direction of the door as he approaches it.

the door — teacher touches the door.

After all the students have had an opportunity to say, act, and read the theme, they should copy it from the board and, in addition, write their names and addresses. The teacher should use this writing period to help students who need assistance, and to learn the capabilities of the individual members of the class.

Second evening

1. Greet students.

2. Identification — name, address, occupation.

3. Review the previous theme, using all the variations possible, particularly dramatization by the students.

4. New theme.

I walk to the table.

I take the paper from the table.

I take the pencil from the table.

I walk to the desk.

I sit down.

I write.

5. Copying of theme and facts of identification.

Third evening

1. Greet students.

2. Identification — name, address, occupation, nationality. Teach spelling and writing involved. Try to draw the students into conversation concerning these facts.

3. Review previous theme.

4. Teach new theme.

I walk to the closet.

I open the door.

I take a book from the closet.

I close the door.

I walk to the desk.

I open the book.

I read the lesson.

Teach

May I have a book, please?

May I have a pencil, please?

May I have a paper, please?

Thank you.

You are welcome.

5. Written work. Filling in elliptical sentences in connection with the theme and facts of identification.

6. Word drill. Use flash cards containing the important words of the theme.

Fourth evening

1. Greet students. Introduce "How do you do?" "How are you?" "I am glad to see you."

2. Identification — age.

3. Review previous theme. Introduce *he*, *she*, and plural nouns where possible. Try to have students give the previous theme from memory.

4. Spelling. Teach five to ten important words from the theme of previous evening.

5. Teach new theme.

I take a glass from the table.

I walk to the sink.

I turn the spigot.

I fill the glass.

I drink the water.

I rinse the glass.

I put the glass on the table.

Teach

Will you please get me a glass of water?

Will you please rinse the glass?

Will you please fill my glass?

6. Dictation. Dictate four sentences used in previous themes. Have pupils compare their work with the originals.

Fifth evening

1. Greet pupils.
2. Identification — length of time in America.
3. Review previous theme. Introduce *he*, *she*, and plural nouns where possible. Try to have students give the previous theme from memory.
4. Spelling. Teach five to ten important words from the theme of the previous evening.
5. Teach new theme.

I take the dishes from the table.

I carry the dishes to the sink.

I pour water into the dish pan.

I rub soap on the dish cloth.

I wash the dishes.

I rinse the dishes.

I put the dishes into the closet.

6. Dictation — involving sentences used in the themes. Correction of errors made.

Sixth evening

1. Conversation. Facts of identification.
2. Signs. "Exit," "Entrance," "This Way Out."
3. Word drill. Use flash cards containing the important words of the previous themes.
4. Review of previous theme, using all the variations possible.
5. Spelling. Teach five to ten important words from the theme of the previous evening.
6. Teach new theme.

I wash the bath tub.

I turn on the water.

I take off my clothes.
 I get into the water.
 I rub soap on the wash cloth.
 I bathe myself.

7. Written work. Elliptical sentences.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

BEGINNERS' CLASS

PREPARED BY

FRANCES ROOKSTOOL

BLAINE SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA

Monday

7:30-7:35 Phonic drill involving the use of the short *a* as in *at*.

7:35-7:50 Review previous lesson (*Federal Citizenship Textbook*, Lesson 22, page 32).

What did we talk about in our last lesson?
 What three reasons did we have for thinking that Mary was sick?

Why was it best to send for the doctor at once?

What other quick calls can we make on a telephone?

What could you do before the doctor comes in this case? In other accidents?

7:50-8:40 Oral presentation and conversation.

What *pulse* means. Have a watch and count heart beats at pulse. If possible show picture — the doctor.

Temperature — use thermometer in school room. Show a doctor's thermometer and explain how temperature is taken under the tongue.

Throat — the name for inside, *neck* for the outside.

Measles — symptoms, a contagious disease. Exclusion of all children; care to keep room warm; care to keep curtains partly down to protect eyes of patient; necessity of obeying doctor's orders.

Lesson read by teacher. A sentence read by each pupil. Questions answered, and a general discussion.

8:40-9:00 Lessons 22 and 23 read over carefully or a short story told for oral reproduction by pupils. A short drill on the spelling of words found in the lesson.

9:00-9:15 Written work. Filling out elliptical sentences involving the use of important words found in the lesson.

9:15-9:30 Structure drill.
Prepositions: *for, to, down, in, into, from.*
Drill for correct usage.

Tuesday

7:30-7:35 Phonic drill involving the use of short *e* as in *bed*.

7:35-7:50 Review previous lessons (Lesson 23).

Who came to Mary's house, in last night's lesson?

What three things did he do? — What were his reasons for doing each of these things?

What disease did he say she had?

Where did he tell her she must stay?

What two things did he tell the other children they must not do? How often does the doctor come?

7:50-8:40 Oral presentation and conversation.

Do you know what *quarantine* means?

When were you in quarantine? What is the Board of Health? Why is it necessary? Have you ever seen a sign on a house that told you some one was sick? Where? Who put the sign on the door? How long must it stay on? Who removes the sign? What is fumigation?

Have a pupil tell what was done when his house was fumigated. Have pupils ask questions concerning points not clearly understood.

Tell how the Board of Health takes care of any nuisance that might interfere with the health of the people living near. Tell how taxes help to pay for the work done by the Board of Health.

8:40-9:00 Reading. Lessons 22, 23, and 24 read over carefully, first by the teacher and

then silently by the pupils. Questions testing for comprehension.

9:00-9:15 Written work. Write two sentences about quarantine, two about fumigation, and two about the Board of Health.

9:15-9:30 Structure drill
Verbs. Drill for past and future tenses using the verbs: *play, to be, send, go, call, say, come, feel, take, and put.*

Wednesday

7:30-7:35 Phonic drill involving the use of the short *o* as in *shop*.

7:35-7:50 Review previous lesson (Lesson 24).
Tell some disease signs that you have seen. For what other diseases does the Board of Health put signs on the house? Who has had a child with measles? How long was your house quarantined? What did we say fumigation meant? What must you receive before your child may return to school?

7:50-8:40 Oral presentation of new lesson (Lesson 25).

Why is fresh air so important to health?
Why should a sleeping room be well ventilated? Is the air better at night or in the day time?

Why are playgrounds necessary in a large city?

APPENDIX F

Tell about the playground activities.

What is our great park called? Give its many uses.

Why should we go to the park whenever we can in the summer?

Care must be taken to put rubbish and garbage in the cans provided. No damage must be done to trees or flowers. Teach the idea of selfishness shown by people who destroy. Taxes pay for the care of the park.

8:40-9:00 Reading (Lessons 23, 24, and 25). Read by the teacher, then orally by students.

9:00-9:15 Spelling. Covering the important and difficult words of the new lesson.

9:15-9:30 Structure drill.

Adjectives — *hot, sore, sick, fresh, small, dirty, clean, strong*. Drill for correct usage in sentences.

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

INTERMEDIATE MOTHERS' CLASS

PREPARED BY

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Monday

3:30-3:40 Seat work (while class is gathering).

Change to past time (in response to request for grammar).

1. The girl sees a beautiful picture.
2. He runs quickly.
3. She chooses her friends.
4. I choose a pattern for a new dress.
5. They see strange birds.

Examine papers individually. Change sentences on board as pupils restate them, using the correct form of the verb.

3:40-4:10 English (grammar to aid in speaking).
Past participle of irregular verbs.

Approach

What did we do with these sentences?

What form of the verb did we use?

Presentation

We have another past time for verbs.

It is called "perfect" time. (Write on board.)

Perfect time is almost the same as past time, but we use a third form of the verb and a helper like *have* or *had* in front. (On board.)

FIRST FORM	SECOND FORM	THIRD FORM
(present)	(past)	(past participle)
<i>see</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>have seen</i> or <i>had seen</i>

We say:

I see a beautiful picture. (Present)

I saw a beautiful picture. (Past)

I *have seen* a beautiful picture. (Perfect)

Development

Indicate the new past — called perfect.

What form of the verb did we use for the perfect time? (Third form.) The third form is called the past participle, but you may call it third form. What did we use with the third form? (A helper.)

We must always have a helper with the third form of the verb.

What is the new time called? What form of the verb do we use? What must be used with the third form of the verb? What makes perfect time?

Application

Change to perfect time. (Orally)

I saw the bird.

She sees the pictures.

They saw the books.

Let us take another irregular verb. (Under *see, saw, seen* write *run, ran, run.*)

What is the first form of the verb? What is the second form of the verb? What is the third form of the verb? What must be used with the third form?

What time does the third form make when used with a helper?

Assignment

Change to perfect time. (Written)

I run to school often.

The girls ran to the corner.

They ran away.

The children saw the strange man.

Examine papers.

4:10-4:35 Civics.

Approach

Discuss clean-up week. Refer to placards on the trolley cars. What do they mean? Have members of the class express themselves.

Presentation

1. Need of cleanliness in the community.
2. Laws for cleanliness (briefly).
3. Problems.
 - a. Waste disposal.
 - b. Street cleaning.
4. Management and cost.
5. Our coöperation.

Use illustrative material such as pictures or diagrams of proper receptacles, bundling of paper, etc.

NOTE. Such words as the following should be developed during the presentation: *clean-up, prevents, disease, citizens, rubbish, greasy rags, waste paper, basement, attic, separate, garbage, healthful, attractive, alley.*

These may be kept on the board to serve as a basis for the reading lesson.

Application

Question pupils as to the manner in which they can help to make clean-up week a success.

- 4:35-5:10 Reading. (*Federal Citizenship Textbook*, page 96. Clean-Up Week.)

Approach

The civics lesson.

Review list of words shown above, and develop the meanings of additional words: *electric, front, usually, committee, advise, barrel, lawns, flower bed, gutter, fences, sheds, paint, vacant, future*. Employ phonic method and pictures.

Presentation

Silent reading by the class.

Application

Test for comprehension.

What does clean-up week mean? Who is in charge of the work? What do they tell the people to do? Who can do much to help in this work? Why should we help?

- 5:10-5:30 Spelling. The words: *meal, seal, deal, reveal, heal*. Sentences based on words. Use sentences of pupils. These will serve for dictation on Wednesday.

Wednesday

- 3:30-3:40 Seat work (while class is gathering).
Review the changing of verbs to perfect time.

The boy ran for his friend.

We run for a car.

He saw the accident.

The boy and girl see the flowers.

I saw the new house.

Examine papers. Change sentences on board as pupils give correct forms.

3:40-4:05 English (grammar to aid in speaking).
Present and past perfect time.

Approach

Change to present perfect time. (Orally)
Give sentences similar to those above under seat work.

Change to past perfect time.

Presentation

Apply principles developed in Monday's lesson to the following new verbs:
choose, catch.

Application

Write: (1) A sentence containing *choose* in present perfect time. (2) A sentence containing *choose* in past perfect time. (3) A sentence containing *catch* in present perfect time. (4) A sentence containing *catch* in past perfect time. Examine the papers and place the sentences offered by pupils on the board.

4:05-4:35 Civics. The topic is compulsory education.

Approach

What happens if your child does not attend school regularly? Use this as a point of departure. Discuss reasons why the community interests itself in the attendance of school children.

Presentation

1. Child labor.
 - a. Relate incidents illustrating how children were permitted to leave school to work.
 - b. Evils.
 - c. Need of community protection of children.
 - d. Child labor and compulsory education laws.
2. Continuation schools.
3. Junior employment bureau.
4. Philadelphia Trade School for Girls.

Such words and phrases as the following will have been used in the course of the lesson: *working certificate, working papers, birth certificate, hire, employ, school system, free, dressmaking, millinery, cooking, fancy work, trade, against the law*. List these on board incidentally.

Application

Discuss the ambitions of the mothers in

the class relative to the education of their children.

4:35-5:10 Reading. The topic is *Miss Mason's Call* ("Federal Citizenship Text," page 124).

Approach

The previous civics lesson. Review words and phrases listed above.

Presentation

Silent reading by the pupils.

Application

Pass out numbered slips bearing questions on the text. Instruct the class to read the question, locate the sentence or paragraph which answers the question, and prepare to read aloud the answer to the question. Call question number one. The pupil reads the question and then the answer. The other questions are called in turn.

5:10-5:30 Spelling and dictation.

Review

Dictate words and sentences developed on Monday. Examine papers and permit time for correction.

Presentation

New words: *read, bead, knead, lead.*

Development

Sentences based on the words. Use sentences offered by class.

Assignment

Practice words and sentences for next week.

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

ADVANCED CLASS

Monday

7:30-8:15

Reading and conversation.

Subject — Hale's *A Man Without a Country*.

Method — Silent reading with oral discussion and questions to test comprehension. Historical background given. Such terms as *my country*, *my native land*, *liberty and democracy* developed.

8:15-8:25

Spelling. Individual lists made from errors of the students' written work. Five words in addition, family groupings being utilized, *e.g.*

satisfy — *likewise* — *thanking*
necessary — *experience*

satisfying

satisfaction

satisfactory

satisfactorily

- 8:25-8:55 History. Subject — Constitution of the United States. Method — Historical background and preamble have been discussed. The aim of the lesson is to give the students an adequate conception of representation in government. Teacher draws analogies from students' experiences with lodges, unions, and political situations in their native countries; discussions involving state areas and population; and, in conclusion, the final compromise in the constitution.
- 8:55-9:05 Dictionary. Practice in the use of the dictionary; pronunciations, exercises that will increase the speed in the use of the dictionary. Work primarily with words taken from the various lessons.
- 9:05-9:30 Hygiene. Subject — Care of the teeth. Experiences of pupils to be utilized in discussion of causes of decay, etc. Stress to be placed on hygiene of the teeth.

Tuesday

- 7:30-7:50 Structure drill.
1. Use of words in sentences.
loan — lend — borrow
in — into, lie — lay, sit — set
 2. Case forms in sentences.
It is (*he — him*).
He is better than (*I — me*).
You and (*she — her*) can enter.

7:50-8:15 Arithmetic.

Develop through the experiences of the students a broad definition of profit and loss (*money, stock, experience*). Discuss legitimate and illegitimate profits. Develop calculation of gain or loss by use of integers and fractions.

8:15-8:25 Spelling.

See Monday's lesson.

Additional words: *recommendation, request, collection, attention, inquiry*.

8:25-8:55 Geography.

Study of cities — New York, Chicago, Philadelphia.

1. Reasons for location
2. Harbor facilities
3. Communication
4. Population
5. Industries
6. Growth
7. Opportunities for work

8:55-9:05 Prefixes: *in, un, re, over, ante*.

9:05-9:30 Civics.

Use *A Man Without a Country* as a basis for discussion as to what a citizen is, his duties and privileges.

Wednesday

7:30-8:15 Letter writing.

Personal letter to a friend recommending *A Man Without a Country*, giving the story as far as read.

- 8 : 15-8 : 25 Spelling.
See Monday's lesson.
Additional words : *vacation, trouble, assessment, anxious.*
- 8 : 25-8 : 55 Poem study — *Paul Revere's Ride*.
Aside from the matter of literary appreciation, utilize the historic background and the attitude of Paul Revere from the point of view of civics.
- 8 : 55-9 : 30 Newspapers or magazines.
News items of importance and editorials read and discussed.

Monday

- 7 : 30-8 : 15 Continuation of *A Man Without a Country*, with conversational review of previous reading.
- 8 : 15-8 : 25 Spelling.
Words of various lessons, in addition to *circumstances, certify, decide, language.*
- 8 : 25-8 : 55 History.
Review history of previous week (national representation) leading to discussion as to representation in state government.
- 8 : 55-9 : 05 Dictionary.
See previous Monday's lesson.
- 9 : 05-9 : 30 Hygiene.
Review hygiene of teeth, leading to hygiene of digestion. Teach diet — summer and winter, drinking, regularity of habits.

Tuesday

- 7:30-7:50 Structure drill.
Review words of previous Tuesday. Add *learn, teach, liable, likely*.
Add to case forms of previous lessons
1. (*Who — whom*) did you say is here?
 2. I shall go with you and (*she — her*).
 3. This is a matter between you and (*I — me*).
- 7:50-8:15 Arithmetic.
Review profit and loss in its fractional form, then the application of the principles in per cent.
- 8:15-8:25 Spelling.
Words taken from various lessons, and in addition *deserve, discharge, employed, obliged*.
- 8:25-8:55 Geography.
Review cities of previous week. Develop in like manner *Boston, Detroit, San Francisco*.
- 8:55-9:05 Homonyms, *e.g. pair — pear, bear — bare, ate — eight, to — too — two*, etc.
- 9:05-9:30 Civics.
Mock trial, using the court martial scene in *A Man Without a Country* as a basis.

Wednesday

- 7:30-8:15 Letter writing.

Business letter offering goods for sale, description of goods, terms, and discount.

8:15-8:25 Spelling.

Review words of the past two weeks in context to discover progress and diagnose weaknesses.

8:25-8:55 Corrections and drill.

Correction of the previous week's letter. Class drills covering the major prevalent errors.

Individual help where possible.

8:55-9:30 Newspapers or magazines.

News items and editorials read and discussed.

APPENDIX H

STENOGRAPHIC RECORD OF A LESSON BASED ON A THEME

SOUTHWARK SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA
ELIZABETH W. GALLAGHER, TEACHER

TEACHER. Today has been very warm and you have all been at work. When your work was finished you were very warm, and your hands and your face were very dirty. Now, when you have finished your work, what do you do with your hands and face?

PUPIL. I wash my hands and wash my face.

- T. When I wash my hands, this is just what I do. I turn up my sleeves. (*Dramatizing.*) What do you do? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves.
- T. That's good English.
- T. Turn your head; turn your hand. (*Pupil follows directions.*)
- T. When you wash your hands, what do you do? (*Calling on another student.*)
- P. I turn my sleeves up.
- T. Fine.
- T. I turn up my sleeves. (*Writes on board: I turn up my sleeves — turn.*)
- T. Will you please read the sentence? (*Indicating a student.*)
- P. (*Reading.*) I turn up my sleeves.
- T. Will you please turn up your sleeves? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Follows the directions.*)
- T. Will you please turn down your sleeves?
- P. (*Follows directions.*) (*Action repeated with two other pupils.*)
- T. (*Dramatizing.*) I pour water into the basin.
- T. What do you do when you wash your hands?
- P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water in basin.
- T. (*Correcting pupil.*) I pour water into the basin.
- T. Come to the front of the room and show us what you do?
- P. I turn up my sleeves.
- T. And then —
- P. I pour water into the basin. (*Dramatizing.*)

- T. Good.
- T. (*Writes on board*: I pour water into the basin — pour.)
- T. Will you please read the sentences? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Reading.*) I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin.
- T. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I wet my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. Will you please wet your hands? (*Pointing to pupil.*)
- P. I wet my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. What do you do when you wash your hands? (*Indicating another pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves.
- T. And then —
- P. I pour water into the basin.
- T. And then —
- P. I wet my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. That's excellent.
- T. (*Writes on board*: I wet my hands — wet.)
- T. Will you please read the sentences? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. (*Performing actions while reading.*)
- T. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. (*To the class.*) Rub your hand on your desk.

Rub your hand on your face. Rub your hand on your book. Rub your hand on your head.

PUPILS. (*Perform the actions.*)

T. Will you please rub soap on your hands? (*Indicating pupil.*)

P. I rub soap on my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)

T. (*Writes on board* : I rub soap on my hands — rub.)

T. Please read the sentence. (*Indicating pupil.*)

P. (*Reading from board.*) I rub soap on my hands.

T. Please read all the sentences. (*Indicating pupil.*)

P. (*Reading from board.*) I turn up my sleeves. I pour *vater* into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands.

T. (*To same pupil.*) Say oo. (*Illustrating the placing of the mouth parts.*)

P. Oo.

T. Now say oo-ater — water.

P. Oo-ater.

T. Again.

P. Water.

T. What do you do when you wash your hands? (*Indicating pupil.*)

P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin.

T. And then —

P. I wet my hands.

T. And then —

P. I rub soap on my hands.

T. That's very good.

T. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. (*Dramatizing.*)

- T. (*To the class.*) Rub soap on your hands. (*Pupils perform action.*) Now wash your hands. (*Pupils perform action.*)
- T. (*Writes on board:* I wash my hands — wash.)
- T. Please read the last sentence. (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I wash my hands. (*Performing action while reading.*)
- T. Now read all the sentences. (*Pointing to another pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands.
- T. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. What do I do? (*Indicating pupil while she dries her hands on a towel.*)
- P. You dry your hands on a towel.
- T. That's fine English.
- T. A towel. (*Holding up a paper towel.*) In the factory or the store, you have a paper towel. At home you have a different towel, a towel like this. (*Holding up a chart showing different types of towels and pointing to one.*)
- T. When I finish with this towel what do I do with it? (*Holding up paper towel.*)
- P. You throw it away.
- T. Good.
- T. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Dramatizing.*)

- T. Will you please wash your hands? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Performing actions.*)
- T. (*Writes on board:* I dry my hands on a towel — dry.)
- T. Please read the last sentence. (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Reading from board.*)
- T. Now read all the sentences. (*Pointing to another pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Reading from board.*)
- T. Show the class what you do when your hands are dirty? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel. (*Dramatizing.*)
- T. What do I do? (*Turning up sleeve.*)
- P. You turn up your sleeve.
- T. Will you please turn up your sleeve? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Performs action.*)
- T. What does *he* do? (*Indicating another pupil.*)
- P. He turns up his sleeve.
- T. Good.
- T. Will you please turn up your sleeve? (*Indicating pupil.*)

- P. (*Performs action.*)
- T. What does she do? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. She turns up her sleeve.
- T. That's fine.
- T. What do I do? (*Pouring water into basin and indicating pupil.*)
- P. You pour water into the basin.
- T. Where is the water? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. The water is in the basin.
- T. Put your hand into the water. (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Performs the action.*)
- T. What does he do? (*Indicating another pupil.*)
- P. He puts his hand into the water.
- T. What is on his hand? (*Indicating a pupil.*)
- P. Water.
- T. Better English, please.
- P. Water is in his hand.
- T. (*Correcting pupil.*) Water is *on* his hand.
- T. (*To same pupil.*) Pick up your pencil. Where is your pencil?
- P. The pencil is in my hand.
- T. The pencil is in the hand, but the water is on the hand.
- T. Where is the water? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. Water is in the basin.
- T. Where is the soap? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. The soap is on the table.
- T. (*Taking the soap and indicating pupil.*) What do I do?
- P. You take the soap.

- T. (*Rubbing the soap on her hands and indicating pupil.*) What do I do with the soap?
- P. You rub the soap on your hands.
- T. (*Drying hands on towel and indicating pupil.*) What do I do?
- P. You dry your hands.
- T. Will you please dry your hands? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Performs action.*)
- T. What does he do? (*Indicating another pupil.*)
- P. He dries his hands. (*This device is repeated several times with both men and women, to illustrate masculine and feminine forms of the pronoun.*)
- T. (*To the pupils, who perform the actions at their seats.*) Hands up. Turn your hands. Put your hands down. Turn your head. Put your hand on your desk. Put your hand up. Pour water. Rub your hands. Wash your hands. Put your hands on your desk. Take your pencil. Put your pencil in your hand. Put your pencil on your hand. Put your pencil down. Pick your pencil up. Turn your pencil. Pick your paper up.
- T. Will you please read the sentences on the board? (*Indicating pupil.*)
- P. (*Reading.*) I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel.
- T. (*Selecting a pupil, who comes to the front of the room.*) This man has been to work today and

his hands are very dirty. What do you want him to do with his hands? (*Indicating another pupil.*)

P. Wash his hands.

T. He is going to wash his hands. He has been in the factory. His hands are dirty, and he is going to wash them.

P. (*From front of room, and without reference to the board, goes through the actions while speaking.*) I turn up my sleeves. I pour water into the basin. I wet my hands. I rub soap on my hands. I wash my hands. I dry my hands on a towel.

T. That's very good.

T. (*To the class.*) Will you please copy the sentences from the board?

APPENDIX I

STENOGRAPHIC RECORD OF A WORD DRILL

BEGINNERS' CLASS — 15TH WEEK

SOUTHWARK SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA

ELIZABETH W. GALLAGHER, TEACHER

Sentences on board in preparation for the lesson.

tree — A tree buds in the spring.

still — The house was very still.

stand — Please stand in the front of the room.

find — I find you are an honest man.

first — You were the first man in the room.

Illustration of a tree on the board.

TEACHER. Give me a sentence using *tree*.

PUPIL. Tree is good for man.

T. Another sentence.

P. Tree is green.

T. Another.

P. A tree is very nice.

P. A tree grows in the country and from the tree I
can get leaves or fruit.

P. A tree is very important.

P. Every tree stands in the air.

T. Still (*pronounces and then spells*) s-t-i-l-l.

T. This part of the word (*underlining* ill) has what
sound?

P. Ill.

T. Good.

T. What other words have the same sound?

P. Will.

P. Till.

P. Fill.

T. When I use the word "still" I mean very quiet.
I say to you: "The room is still." That means:
The room is very quiet. When I say: "I hear
a still small voice," it means, "I hear a very
quiet voice, a voice that is not loud." (*Writes
the two sentences on the board.*)

T. Read the sentences.

P. (*Reads the two sentences.*)

T. Give me a sentence using the word *still*.

P. I read still.

T. You should say: I read silently.

T. Another sentence.

P. I be still.

T. You should say: I am still.

T. We can use "still" another way. If you read your newspapers today, you will learn that some men are not doing what the government wants them to do. They have a little still in their cellars. You know what I mean. It is spelled the same way.

T. Stand (*pronounces and then spells*) s-t-a-n-d.

T. This part of the word (*underlining* and) has what sound?

P. And.

T. Fine.

T. What other words have the same sound?

P. Hand.

P. Land.

P. Sand.

T. Stand means upright. (*Demonstrates by emphasizing erect posture while standing.*) I say to you: I stand. The opposite of stand would be what word?

P. Sit.

T. Fine.

T. The soldier stands in line.

T. Give me a sentence using the word *stand*.

P. I stand by my work.

T. You should say: I stand *at* my work.

T. Give me another sentence using the word.

P. I stand in the movies.

P. I stand in the trolley car.

T. Find (*pronounces and then spells*) f-i-n-d.

- T. Find means to get a thing after looking for it, as,
I find the pencil in the drawer. (*After looking for it.*)
- T. I could say to you : I find time to visit you. That means I get time to visit you.
- T. Give me a sentence using the word *find*.
- P. I find time to go out.
- P. I find a book.
- P. I find my paper.
- T. If you meant that you did it yesterday how would you say the sentence ?
- P. Yesterday I found my paper.
- T. If you will do it tomorrow, how would you say the sentence ?
- P. Tomorrow, I will find my paper.
- T. First (*pronounces and then spells*) f-i-r-s-t. He is the first man in his class. What is the opposite of first ?
- P. Last.
- T. Good. Give me a sentence using the word *first*.
- P. He is the first man in line.
- P. I sit in first seat.
- T. (*Correcting.*) I sit in the first seat.
- T. Another sentence.
- P. Sunday is the first day of the week.
- P. Now is the first day of the month.

Pupils read the sentences in concert from the board.

Pupils then spell the five words in concert, then individually without reference to the board.

APPENDIX J

STENOGRAPHIC RECORD OF A HYGIENE LESSON

BEGINNERS' CLASS — 16TH WEEK

SOUTHWARK SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA
ELIZABETH W. GALLAGHER, TEACHER

TEACHER. Last week we talked about keeping the body very healthy and very strong, and you were told what to do to keep your body strong and keep your body healthy, and that there was one doorkeeper to your body. When you come into the room, what do you do?

PUPIL. I open the door.

T. Now, my body is a room and the door of my body is — what do you think?

P. The mouth is the door to your body.

T. Fine.

T. The mouth is the door of my body. When I stand at the door, I am the doorkeeper. I let you into the room, or I let you out of the room. Now, my mouth is the door to my body and inside my mouth is the doorkeeper. The tongue is the doorkeeper. What else in my mouth is doorkeeper?

P. The teeth. The teeth are in your mouth.

T. Now, I have two doorkeepers in my mouth. What are they?

P. The teeth and the tongue.

T. To this door that is in my body, the teeth are doorkeepers, and if the doorkeepers aren't

strong and healthy my body will not be healthy. I must keep my teeth healthy, or my body will not be strong. If my teeth are not good, my body will not be strong and healthy. Will you tell me, please, what do you do to keep your teeth healthy?

- P. I clean every day my teeth.
- T. (*Correcting.*) Every day I clean my teeth.
- T. What must I keep clean?
- P. You must keep your teeth clean to keep your body healthy.
- P. Keep your teeth clean.
- T. How will I keep my teeth clean?
- P. You must wash your teeth three times a day.
- T. Brush your teeth just as often as your mothers clean their knives and forks. What else must I do to keep my teeth strong and healthy?
- P. Go to the dentist.
- T. I go to the dentist every six months to see if my teeth are strong and healthy. Did you ever have a toothache?
- P. A toothache hurts.
- T. What gives you a toothache? What gives you a pain in your tooth?
- P. A broken tooth.
- T. What gets into the tooth?
- P. Food gets into the tooth.
- T. What does the food do when it stays in your teeth?
- P. It hurts your teeth.
- T. If the food stays in your tooth, what does it do? What does it make in your tooth?

- P. It makes a little hole.
- T. When the hole is in your tooth a long time, what happens to your tooth?
- T. You have a toothache, and if you do not go to the dentist, this hole gets bigger and bigger, and before you know it, you have a very bad tooth in your mouth. (*Blackboard illustration of good and decayed teeth.*)
- T. When you have a very bad tooth in your mouth, what does the dentist do?
- P. He takes it out, or fills up the tooth.
- T. If the dentist pulls out your tooth when you are a boy, what happens when you are a man?
- P. You are without teeth.
- T. (*Teacher shows chart of young man without two of his front teeth.*) What does the dentist do to your tooth?
- P. He fills up the hole or gives you another tooth for fourteen dollars.
- T. What else can you do to keep your teeth healthy?
- P. You must keep your teeth clean; you must take out food from between your teeth, the meat and bread. Sometimes a piece of string between your teeth takes out food.
- T. When your teeth are bad, they are not good door-keepers. When you clean your teeth, what do you use?
- P. I use tooth paste.
- T. What else?
- P. I use a tooth brush and tooth paste.
- T. How do you clean your teeth?

- P. With water and a brush.
- T. You take a brush in your hand and rub your teeth.
How do you rub your teeth?
- P. I wash my teeth with tooth paste and put some on the brush and rub my teeth, then I wash my mouth with water. (*Pupil in front of room dramatizes, rubbing the brush from left to right.*)
- T. Do you, when you clean your teeth, only rub them this way (*brushing from left to right*), or do you rub any other way?
- P. I can rub the inside of my teeth and the outside of my teeth. When I clean my teeth, I rub this way and that way, inside and outside, and up and down.
- P. I rub above and below ; I rub up and I rub down.
- T. (*Shows chart illustrating various positions of brush on the teeth.*) The brush shows you how to clean your teeth. It tells you to clean up and down and around your teeth. Somebody told me to use tooth paste. Can you use anything else?
- P. Yes, tooth powder.
- T. What do you use?
- P. I use tooth powder.
- T. Do you use anything else?
- P. I use tooth wash.
- T. You can use two more things. Sometimes green grows on your teeth and there are two things you can use to remove it. Go to the kitchen and take some salt. Put it on your brush and use it on your teeth. You may also use baking soda. If you use salt or baking soda, you will

have good teeth. (*Presents chart showing perfect set of teeth.*) Everybody wants to look nice, and if you do not take care of your teeth, you will not look nice. (*Shows a chart with imperfect set of teeth.*) When you clean your teeth, look into the mirror and see if the doorkeeper is going to take care of your body. (*Shows chart with person looking into mirror and examining his teeth.*) Keep your brush clean. There are two things to remember. (*Writes on board: Clean teeth never decay. Good teeth mean good health.*)

P. (*Reads from board at request of teacher.*)

T. When I was a little girl and had a hole in my dress, my mother would say to me, "A stitch in time saves nine." A brush in time saves nine teeth. (*Writes on board: A brush in time saves nine teeth.*)

P. (*Reads from board at request of teacher.*)

T. Be very careful always and remember that clean teeth never decay, and strong teeth mean good health.

T. (*Distributes mimeographed sheets containing the following:*)

The mouth is the door to the body.

The teeth and the tongue are doorkeepers.

The teeth must be strong.

Clean teeth never decay.

Good teeth mean good health.

A tooth brush in time saves nine teeth.

He who fights his teeth's decay

Will live to bite another day.

APPENDIX K

SELF-RATING SCORE CARD FOR TEACHERS

	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	EXC.
I. Personal Equipment				
1. Sympathy				
2. Enthusiasm				
3. Promptness				
4. Initiative				
5. Industry				
6. Tact				
7. Spirit of service				
8. Dignity				
9. Health				
10. English				
<i>a.</i> Pronunciation				
<i>b.</i> Enunciation				
<i>c.</i> Accent				
<i>d.</i> Grammar				
11. Coöperation				
II. Special Preparation				
1. Professional Courses				
2. Professional interest and growth				
3. Understanding of adult immigrants				
4. Understanding of immi- grant background				
5. Interest in problems of students				
6. Grasp of subject matter				

SELF-RATING SCORE CARD FOR TEACHERS—*Continued*

	POOR	FAIR	GOOD	EXC.
7. Understanding of the objectives				
8. Daily preparation . . .				
III. Routine Management				
1. Appearance of room . .				
2. Light				
3. Ventilation				
4. Temperature				
5. Seating arrangement . .				
6. Blackboard space . . .				
7. Objective material . . .				
8. Care of routine				
IV. Instruction				
1. Subject matter				
<i>a.</i> Aim				
<i>b.</i> Selection				
<i>c.</i> Organization				
2. Teaching Technique . . .				
<i>a.</i> Method				
<i>b.</i> Drill				
<i>c.</i> Teacher activity . . .				
<i>d.</i> Pupil activity				
<i>e.</i> Socialized instruction .				
<i>f.</i> Individual instruction				
3. Results				
<i>a.</i> Attention of class . . .				
<i>b.</i> Response of class . . .				
<i>c.</i> Growth of students in subject matter . . .				
General rating				

APPENDIX L

NATURALIZATION FACTS AND PROCEDURE¹

Who are American citizens? "All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." — *Constitution of the United States*.

Citizenship in the United States is determined by native birth or naturalization. Any child born in the United States is a citizen regardless of the political status of the parents. This applies to children of Chinese and Japanese parents, even though their parents are ineligible for citizenship under existing laws, as well as to children of foreign parents who are eligible for citizenship. Children of naturalized parents must come to the United States and live here permanently in order to claim citizenship. Children born to American parents while abroad are considered as native-born citizens.

Those who may become citizens

1. White persons, or persons of African birth or their descendants.

¹ A detailed summary of the provisions of the Immigration Act of 1924 and one that covers all important provisions, rulings, and interpretations of the new law may be found in *The Immigration Act*, issued by the Trans-Atlantic Passenger Conferences, 8 Bridge Street, New York. (Joint Circular No. 3; October, 1924.)

2. Unmarried women of the above races, through the same procedure as an alien male.

Those who may not become citizens

1. A polygamist.
2. An anarchist.
3. A person belonging to clubs or associations teaching disbelief in organized government.
4. A person convicted of a penal offense.
5. A person of questionable moral character.
6. A person not rightly informed about the United States government.
7. Chinese.
8. Japanese.
9. Koreans.

Procedure for naturalization. In order for an alien to become a naturalized citizen he must conform to certain requirements fixed by Congress. The teacher should note the variations that occur from time to time in the rules and regulations pertaining to the naturalization procedure.

First papers — "Declaration of Intention"

The applicant must be at least eighteen years of age. He must be willing to renounce allegiance to his mother country.

He may obtain his first papers any time after his arrival in the United States.

He need not know how to speak, read, or write English, the clerk of the court will help him to fill them out, or he may take someone with him to assist.

The naturalization office is open between 9 A.M. and 4 P.M. every day, and on Saturdays until noon.

The applicant must know the following information concerning himself before he visits the court: full name, age, occupation, color, complexion, height, weight, color of hair, color of eyes, date of birth, place of birth, the country from which he came, name of vessel or railroad on which he traveled, the date and place of arrival, whether married or single, if married the name of his wife, where she was born, and the country of which she is a subject.

The applicant must fill out a form called "Facts for Declaration of Intention" and present it with one dollar at the clerk's office of the United States District Court, or to the Superior Court in his county. After taking an oath to the truthfulness of the statements on the form, he receives his first papers or "Declaration of Intention."

The "Declaration of Intention" (Form 2213) states that the applicant is not an anarchist or a polygamist, and that it is his intention to become a citizen of the United States. This paper must be kept in a safe place because it will be needed when the applicant takes out his second citizenship papers. Considerable time, trouble, and expense are involved in securing duplicate copies for those that have been lost or destroyed. The government carefully investigates all the facts in such cases to guard against fraud.

Second papers — "Certificate of Naturalization"

The petition for naturalization may be made after five years' continuous residence in the United States, and a residence of one year in the state where the petition is made. It cannot be made in less than two years

nor more than seven years after taking out first papers.

Applicants for the "Certificate of Naturalization" may be divided into two groups: those who arrived on or before June 29, 1906, and those who arrived after that date. If an applicant arrived prior to that date, he should take his first paper to the court, together with two witnesses who must be citizens of the United States, and fill out the form "Facts for Petition for Naturalization." If the witnesses are naturalized citizens, they must take their second papers with them. They are required to testify under oath that they have known the applicant for at least five years, that he is of good moral character, that the facts stated in his "Petition for Naturalization" are correct, and that he is in every way qualified to become an American citizen. The petition must be signed by the applicant in his own handwriting, and he must also be able to read English unless physically unable to do so.

If the petitioner has lived in several states, he must take with him two witnesses who have known him during the time he has lived in the state in which he has filed his petition. The remaining portion of the applicant's residence may be covered by the same two witnesses if they have known him during that period, or by other witnesses appearing in person, or by depositions or testimony taken in his former state from two citizens who have known him there. The required form of notice to take such depositions is supplied by the clerk of the court. The cost of the second paper is four dollars.

If the applicant has arrived since June 29, 1906, he must fill out a "Request for Certificate of Arrival." This form should then be sent to the Commissioner of Naturalization, Washington, D. C. On the return of this certificate to the court, the applicant is requested to appear with two witnesses to file second papers. The procedure from this point on is the same as for those who arrived on or before the above date.

The court examination.

The final examination may not be held within less than ninety days after the "Petition for Naturalization" has been filed, nor may it be held within the thirty days preceding a general election in the jurisdiction of the court. During the period of waiting, the applicant should remain in the United States and make sure that his two witnesses will appear with him in court again. If the witnesses do not appear, others may be substituted who can swear to the same facts, provided notice of ten days has been furnished the court. The court can compel witnesses to appear if the clerk is notified and the costs of legal witness fees are paid by the petitioner.

During the period between the filing of the "Petition for Naturalization" and the court examination, the past history of the candidate for naturalization is looked into to ascertain his qualifications for citizenship.

When the petitioner appears in the court he will be examined about his knowledge of the Constitution of the United States, and some simple facts concerning the city, state, and national government of the country. If the court is satisfied with all of the preceding

steps, the petitioner takes the oath of allegiance to the United States, renouncing allegiance to any foreign ruler, and renouncing any hereditary title:

"I hereby declare on oath, that I absolutely and entirely renounce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly to (name of sovereign country) of whom I heretofore have been a subject; that I will support and defend the constitution and laws of the United States of America against all enemies, foreign and domestic, and that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same."

After the oath of allegiance has been administered, the "Certificate of Naturalization" is officially signed and sealed, and delivered to the new citizen. No additional charge is made for this certificate.

Regulations concerning women and children

1. American women retain their citizenship status when they marry an alien, unless the husband is ineligible to citizenship.

2. Alien women do not become citizens by marriage to a citizen.

3. Naturalization of the husband does not confer citizenship on the wife.

4. The procedure for naturalization for single alien women and alien women married to aliens is the same as for alien men, namely, to comply with all the requirements of the naturalization law.

5. An alien woman married to a citizen may become a citizen by complying with the requirements of the naturalization law with the following modifications:

a. Only one year's continuous residence in the United States is required.

b. No "Declaration of Intention" is required.

6. A woman who has lost her American citizenship status through marriage to an alien prior to the passage of the act of September 22, 1922, may regain it by complying with the requirements of the naturalization law with the following exceptions:

a. Only one year's continuous residence in the United States is required.

b. No "Declaration of Intention" is required.

c. No "Certificate of Arrival" is required, provided she has lived continuously in the United States.

7. If a man dies after taking out his first papers, his widow may take out second papers. Such naturalization will include her minor children.

8. If a man dies after taking out his first papers, his children may take out second papers after they are twenty-one years of age, provided they were minors at the time of the parent's death.

9. Children born in the United States are citizens, although their parents may be aliens at the time, or may be ineligible for citizenship.

10. Minors become citizens at the time of their parent's naturalization, if said minors are then in the United States.

11. All children born outside of the United States whose fathers at the time of their birth are citizens of the United States are themselves citizens. This applies to children of naturalized as well as native-born Americans.

12. Any child born abroad before the naturalization of the father is deemed a citizen of the United States provided (a) the naturalization is completed before the child is twenty-one years old and (b) that such child begins to reside permanently in the United States before he is twenty-one years old.

How American citizenship may be forfeited. Citizenship is lost when a person accepts an office or service that involves the taking of an oath of allegiance to a foreign government. The act of October 5, 1917, declared that American citizens who, since August 1, 1914, had sworn allegiance to a foreign state and were honorably discharged therefrom, should not thereby lose their citizenship. The act of May 9, 1918, superceded the earlier one, and provides that such persons might resume their citizenship by taking the oath of allegiance to the United States before any court authorized to naturalize aliens, or before any consul of the United States.

Long and continued residence abroad by citizens creates the assumption of intention to abandon American citizenship, a presumption which may, however, be overcome by the presentation of evidence to the contrary. In the case of naturalized citizens, the presumption of intention to abandon American citizenship is much greater than is the case with native-born Americans. With the latter group, loss of citizenship results ordinarily not from long residence abroad but from naturalization by a foreign government. The act of Congress of March 2, 1907 declared that "when any naturalized citizen shall have resided for two years

in the state of his origin, or five years in any other foreign state, it shall be presumed that he has ceased to be an American citizen; provided, however, that such presumption may be overcome on the presentation of satisfactory evidence to a diplomatic or consular officer of the United States."

Citizenship obtained illegally or through fraud may be cancelled by the court.

Penalty for securing naturalization by fraud. A fine of not more than \$10,000, or imprisonment for not more than five years, or both, may be inflicted upon any person attempting to secure his naturalization by fraud.

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